The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 5, 1897.

The Week.

The scheme of having jubilations in all parts of the country over the passage of the Dingley tariff law fell through, fortunately for its promoters. It would have been the very irony of fate if such a celebration had occurred in Lawrence, Mass., on Saturday evening, to be followed on Monday morning by the announcement that two great mills, employing more than 2,000 hands, would shut down through a part of August; or in Manchester, N. H., to be followed within forty-eight hours by the notice that the great Amoskeag mills, employing about 8,000 operatives, would shut down through the month of August, if not longer. Nobody will be surprised to learn that in the former city "the news was hardly believed at first, in view of the promises made in the past years that, when a new tariff law had been passed, full time and full wages would be resumed in all the Lawrence mills." Protectionists will cite the fact that similar shut-downs have occurred of late years in the summer season at both Lawrence and Manchester, but that was under a Democratic administration and a "free-trade tariff." That such a custom should be maintained under a Republican President, and put into effect just after the passage of a high-tariff law, is nothing short of a breach of the contract to restore prosperity which the party made with the operatives last fall.

The favorite railing accusation brought against the Wilson bill has been, of course, that it was such a failure as a revenue-producer. Dingley was to mend all that from the first day. The Treasury was instantly to gain $100,000 a day. Well, the confounded facts will not bend themselves to this view. Receipts from customs for the first four days of the Wilson bill were upwards of $3,250,000. Dingley's first four days brought in $1,621,500—or almost precisely one-half. No one need suppose that we regard this showing as really proving anything about the ultimate efficiency of the Dingley bill as a means of producing revenue. It is only a convenient gag to put in certain noisy protectionist mouths. Mr. Dingley will have to send out his first monthly statement with a deficit of $11,073,544, just as if he were another incompetent Wilson. If the point is made that this month of July is five-sixths Wilson and only one-sixth Dingley, we have to record the fact that the one-sixth Dingley increased the deficit by just about $600,000 beyond the amount where the Wilson bill left it. This is the more unlucky in view of the fact that Wilson was able to close his first month with a substantial surplus.

People who watched the heedless extravagance of the last Congress were not surprised at the announcement, in Monday's Washington despatch, that the fiscal year had begun with a July deficit of $11,073,544; nor at the accompanying explanation that "this deficit is accounted for by abnormally heavy expenditures incident to the beginning of the new fiscal year." July expenditures, say the somewhat faint-voiced defenders of the recent fiscal measures, are always far beyond the monthly average. Nothing could be more true. But when the total disbursements of July, 1897, are $50,100,908, against $42,088,468 in July, 1896, and $38,548,063 in July, 1895, suspicion arises that something more than the movement of the seasons is responsible for the inroad on the Treasury. It will be noticed that the month's Government revenue runs almost exactly ten million dollars over the revenue of July, 1896, and yet that the month's deficit is left at more than eleven millions. With such an introductory showing for the fiscal year, the future movement of the revenue, when the Dingley tariff is left alone in operation, becomes a matter of real concern.

The decided decline in the price of silver is hard to reconcile with the reports of the progress made by Senator Wolcott's embassy. We have been assured that the active coöperation of France and the passive aid of England could be depended on, and leading authorities on bimetallism have told us that with such assistance silver could be reinstated. In the face of all this, silver goes down in price with accelerated speed. Possibly a gigantic monetary conspiracy is working to produce this result. Wicked capitalists may reason with themselves that, as silver is presently to be doubled in value by international agreement, it will be a profitable commodity to hold. They may, therefore, have combined to depress the market in order to obtain a stock of silver at the lowest possible price, expecting to sell out at an enormous advance. This explanation ought to recommend itself to the believers in silver. It implies that silver will advance in price, which they believe; that such persons as have a large stock of it on hand will make a great deal of money, which they cannot deny; and that the "money kings" are disposed to do just what Debs and Bryan and Altgeld declare they have always done and will always try to do.

There is a very different explanation of the falling price of silver, and a more rational one. The fall is due to the expectation that silver will be worth less in the future than it is now. The quantity produced is increasing very much, and the cost of producing it is steadily diminishing. On the other hand, the demand for it as money is falling off. Our own Treasury is overloaded with it. The German Government has a large quantity for sale, and so probably has Austria. The French have more silver than they wish they had; the Indian mint is closed; Japan is adopting the gold standard. We begin to hear talk of a change of standard in Mexico, the losses and vexations arising from the silver standard becoming intolerable. Under these circumstances it seems much more reasonable to hold that silver is falling in price because people believe it will not be remonetized than because they believe it will be remonetized. In other words, the financial world regards our silver embassy as a humbug, and does not expect that anything will be done for silver through it or any other agency.

Secretary Gage's speech at Boston on July 27 was rather in the nature of a dose of soothing-syrup than of a thorough-going remedy for our financial situation. In this respect it was less encouraging than his speech at Cincinnati a few weeks ago. The latter had a resolute tone which betokened that the Administration knew what it wanted, intended to go for it, and expected to get it. That speech did a great deal of good in the way of reviving confidence here and abroad. The Boston speech lacks the confidence and vim which imparted so much of hope to those who share Mr. Gage's views in general. They believe with him that the tribulations of the last three years will always beset our currency and our standard of value as long as they remain on their present sandy foundation. They believe, too, that no step will ever be taken towards amendment unless those who know the truth are prepared to fight for it against any odds, whether the opponents be Bryan Democrats or McKinley Republicans. To all such we fear that Mr. Gage's words at Boston will come as a disappointment, for he tells us that there is no pressing need for haste, no immediate occasion for anxiety, that we have ample reserves in the Treasury and good prospects, and so forth. This is exactly what the do-nothings in Congress tell us, and now they will strengthen their own position by quoting the Secretary. All that he says now will be used against his own plan of currency reform next winter, no

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matter what that plan may be. The do-nothings will say, "Why not let well enough alone?" If there is no pressing need for haste, and no immediate occasion for anxiety, the average Congressman will conclude that it will be time enough to meet the danger when it comes. It will be hard for anybody to meet that argument who has once used something like it himself.

Last year the Democrats of Maryland, with manifest reluctance, endorsed Bryan and his platform, and in this policy Senator Gorman joined, although much against his inclination. The result was a disastrous split in the party, and its defeat by a plurality of 32,000. Cleveland's plurality over Harrison in 1892 was 21,000. A change of more than 50,000 in the vote of the State was caused by the fatuous and dishonest policy of the Chicago convention, and a seat in the Senate was lost at the same time. The lesson was well calculated to lead to reflection, and Mr. Gorman has naturally made different arrangements for the present year. Circumstances and President McKinley have enabled him to do so. The Wolcott Commission has served his turn perfectly. He has "taken passage" with the present Administration, and he seems to enjoy his company very much. In their declaration of principles the Maryland Democrats say:

> "We note with satisfaction that the demand of more than 6,500,000 of Democratic voters, expressed at the polls last November, has compelled President McKinley and a Republican Congress to urge upon the European Powers, through the medium of a duly appointed commission, the necessity for an international conference to arrange the terms of a bimetallic system under the operation of which both gold and silver shall be used and recognized as money of final redemption."

They further affirm that they stand where they always have stood. They "believe now, as they always have believed, in honest money, the gold and silver money of the Constitution, and the coinage of both metals without discrimination against either into standard dollars of final payment and redemption"—but not at any particular ratio. The essence of the Chicago platform and of the whole Bryan campaign was in the fixing of the ratio of 16 to 1. That was the Democratic new departure. The platform on which Mr. Cleveland was nominated in 1892 called for "the coinage of both gold and silver without discriminating against either metal," but it required that the two kinds of dollars should be of the same intrinsic value. There is nothing in the Gorman platform that requires them to be of the same intrinsic value or of any value. The Maryland Democrats have simply straddled the question, and they have found in the Wolcott commission the excuse for doing so. What a useful thing a roving bimetallic commission is. Its advantages are not confined to any political party.

On the day that President McKinley promulgated his order regulating removals from the service, Judge Jackson of the United States Circuit Court, sitting in Parkersburg, W. Va., granted an injunction restraining a newly appointed (Republican) marshal from removing (Democratic) deputies without assigning reasons, and presumptively on political grounds. The Judge referred to the fact that such places had in the past been regarded as party spoils, but insisted that the civil-service act had changed all this, and maintained that the act of itself prevents partisan removals, saying on this point:

> "If there is anything in the civil-service act, the office is one fully protected by it, and the occupant is withdrawn from the spoils of party. In my judgment the civil-service act is a law founded in wisdom, and if it is executed in the same wisdom in which it was conceived and enacted, it will not only prove to be one of the wisest statutes that have been enacted in the latter part of this century, but one of the safeguards of our republican institutions. The incumbent is protected in the enjoyment of his position by the civil-service act."

This is the most advanced ground ever taken by the courts in the matter. If it shall be sustained in the event of an appeal, it will show that the President's recent order forbidding removals, except for just cause duly ascertained, was really not needed, because the law itself prohibited such removals. Yet many thousands of clerks in Washington have been trembling ever since last November for fear that the bread might presently be taken out of their mouths. It is something fine to have materially added to the happiness of so many human beings by an order which at the same time improves the conduct of the public business.

In one day's telegraphic despatches last week there casually appeared three items that ought to furnish protectionists food for serious reflection. The new underground railway in London is to be equipped with electrical locomotives, carriages, machinery, etc., made by an American concern, the General Electric Company. Protesting English concerns are informed that the American electrical appliances are the best and cheapest that can be procured. In the House of Commons the Secretary of State for India explained that the East Indian Railway, which is owned by the Government, had bought 7,708 tons of rails from the Maryland Steel Company, because that company offered them for £8,675 less than was demanded by the lowest British bidder. And from Wilmington, Del., the announcement comes that the Jackson & Sharp Company of that city has entered into a contract to build a number of cars for the Southeastern Railway of England. What view shall be taken of such extensions of American enterprise as these? It seems reasonable to regard them with satisfaction and to frame our fiscal laws in such a way as not to discourage them. But our new tariff is calculated to discourage them. It is intended to give our manufacturers the home market, and it will end by giving them no other.

The protest against President Andrews's forced resignation, which a majority of the Brown faculty signed and published on Tuesday, puts the case for freedom of teaching in a way to win the sympathy of every lover of academic liberty and progress. We certainly do not want to see the *Lehrfreiheit* in this country descend to the level it touched in Prussia under Frederick William III.; that amiable monarch proclaiming that the university professors were free to teach whatever they pleased, though, of course, they must not advance any views of which he disapproved. The Brown professors also, it seems to us, make a pretty effective retort to the trustees on the basis of the merely pecuniary interests of their institution. The trustees rested their case on the pecuniary losses sustained by reason of President Andrews's vagaries. If they cannot sustain this position their case is weaker than we supposed. Irrespective of the past and of endowments that might have been received, it is at any rate evident now, after the fact, that the action of the trustees is likely, for some time to come at least, to injure the material interests of the university. If they had based their action on the ground that a college president should devote less of his time to outside enterprises, and avoid giving alumni and intending patrons the impression of a flighty and erratic mind, not without a dash of love of notoriety thrown in, they would have had a surer footing. The affair has now taken a shape which all friends of Brown, and of academic peace and dignity, must deplore.

There are 25,000 Japanese in the Hawaiian Islands—probably ten for every American there. If we must annex for the sake of our one, Japan may at least show some concern over what will happen to her ten. Now the Japanese Minister points out that the extension of the naturalization, immigration, customs, and navigation laws of the United States to Hawaii—an extension which would *ipso facto* follow annexation—would injure these 25,000 Japanese in both person and property. They would at once lose their right to become citizens of Hawaii; no "Asiatic" can be naturalized under the laws of the United States. They would lose their valuable carrying trade. They would probably

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lose their "full liberty to enter, travel, or reside in any part" of the country. That phrase is taken from the treaty between Japan and the United States, which is to go into effect in 1899; but the clause quoted is modified by another which says that the stipulations of the treaty "do not in any way affect the laws, ordinances, and regulations with regard to trade, the immigration of laborers, police, and public security which are in force or which may hereafter be enacted in either of the two countries." United States courts have held that the Chinese exclusion act applies also to Japanese. Mr. Sherman remarks that this decision has not been sustained by the Supreme Court; but what guarantee have the Japanese that it will not be? How can they be blamed for pointing out the danger that the elementary personal rights of 25,000 Japanese in Hawaii will be absolutely and remedilessly extinguished by annexation?

As Mr. Chamberlain sees that he is not likely to cover himself with glory by getting up an imperial customs union, he has fallen back on a minor measure of protection, the foreign prison-made-goods bill. It must be said that the English Parliament has seldom occupied so humiliating a position as in submitting to the "jamming through" of this measure for prohibiting imports. The Government scarcely attempted to defend it, and made a most pitiable showing in trying to evade the awkward questions that were raised in debate. One member stated that he imported wheat from Argentina in bags, and that in that country bags were made in the prisons, and desired to know if such wheat was to be excluded. He was told that the Government would not go to the length of prohibiting imports under such circumstances. Another member said he came from a part of Scotland where they imported from Sweden and Norway many boats caulked with prison-made oakum, and he wanted to know if the trade would be illegal. The Government in reply begged honorable members not to go on raising such trivial points. Members, however, continued, and showed that some of the finest Burmese carving was executed in the jail of Benares, some of the finest Indian carpets in that of Lahore, some of the finest furniture in that of Agra, and some of the best work in copper and brass in the jails of Rangoon and Mandelay. Every traveller in India now brought some of these articles back with him, but the bill would prohibit their introduction into England. The Government had nothing to say about this aspect of its measure, except that it was not meant to interfere with the private collector, and that words should be inserted to accomplish this result. Thereupon, another member pointed out that such words would render the bill utterly useless, for a dealer need only set up his shop on the other side of the Channel and sell his goods directly to purchasers in England. The Government replied to this that all it meant was that if a traveller wished to bring home a piece of old carpet he should not be prevented. This brought out the inquiry how old carpets could be produced in prisons today, to which no answer was vouchsafed.

The action of England in denouncing the old treaties with the German Zollverein and with Belgium is a necessary sequel to the reduction of duties on English products lately proposed by the Dominion of Canada. Under these treaties such a reduction of duties would apply to Belgian and German goods. The treaty with Belgium contains the following clause: "Articles the produce or manufacture of Belgium shall not be subject in the British colonies to other or higher duties than those which are or may be imposed upon similar articles of British origin." The German treaty contains a provision of similar effect. It might be naturally inferred from some of Sir Wilfred Laurier's remarks that the Canadian Government had not considered the nature of these treaties when it decided on its new policy towards English imports. The contrary is true, although the Premier spoke as if it were doubtful whether the treaties constituted an obstacle, whereas they are entirely free from ambiguity. No plainer language could be employed to express the intention that no higher duties should be imposed on Canadian imports from Belgium and Germany than on those from England. Had Belgium made her own treaty with Canada, then the "most-favored-nation" clause would have read that the products of Belgium should not be subject to any higher duties than the products of any other foreign country. The fact is that England undertook to answer for the tariff laws of her colonies, and that she has now decided that the colonies shall determine their own policy. The occasion of this decision is undeniably the proposal of Canada to grant England some special favors; but it is in harmony with free-trade principles to accept reductions of tariff obstacles whenever they are offered. The Cobden Club recommended the termination of these treaties.

A set debate on foreign affairs took place in the House of Commons on July 19, on occasion of passing the Foreign Office estimates. This gave Mr. Curzon an opportunity to review the course of events in Turkey for two years past, and a gloomy review it was. As to Armenia, all that Mr. Curzon could assert was that, while "no doubt great distress continues to prevail," there have been no organized massacres since March. "Isolated cases of murder" he admitted, but the great, the signal proof of the wisdom and beneficence of the Concert of Europe in dealing with the Armenian question was that for three months the Sultan had refrained from wholesale slaughter of his Armenian subjects. Touching those wonderful "reforms" which the Powers secured from the Porte two years ago, Mr. Curzon said that they had been put into operation "in parts of Asia Minor," but added regretfully that he did "not know that the result had been altogether satisfactory." It seems that in many cases the Armenians, who, according to the Sultan's agreement with the Powers, had been appointed to the police and the gendarmerie, had "subsequently resigned." One wonders if the "isolated murders" of Armenians had anything to do with these strange resignations. All told, the confession of impotency and frustration, as far as Armenia is concerned, could not well have been more humiliating.

After a severe struggle the charter of the Bank of France has been renewed by the Government, upon terms that are comparatively satisfactory. A very determined attempt was made to get the Government into the banking business, as we have done here, but a majority of the Deputies finally voted against the proposal. The arguments against banks with which we are familiar were all rehearsed; our demagogues have no monopoly of them. Even the sub-treasury scheme of our Farmers' Alliance was vigorously advocated, and the deplorable condition of the French peasant was depicted in the very language of our free-silver agitators. The Socialists were determined that the bank should establish a mortgage department, and issue money to the peasants on real-estate security, and some concessions had to be made to them on this point. The "Agrarian" party in Germany is apparently about to make similar proposals concerning the Reichsbank. This party has long complained that the bank did not consider the "landed interest"; this interest wants credit, and the bank has refused to give it. The demand now is that the bank shall "issue money directly to the people"—that is, shall increase its notes in order that they may be loaned to the proprietors of land. The Agrarian party is so strong that these demands cannot be ignored. They will not be defeated without a struggle, and the "currency problem" may therefore presently confront the German people. When we compare the smooth working of the English system with the difficulties and dangers that most other countries experience, it seems strange that any considerable number of people in this country should object to establishing our currency on a permanent basis,

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THE REFORM VICTORY.

President McKinley deserves and will receive the heartiest praise of good citizens, without distinction of party, for the amendments to the civil-service rules which he made before starting on his vacation last week. It is not too much to say that, under all the circumstances, they constitute the greatest victory for the reform since the passage of the original law on the subject early in 1883. The spoilsmen themselves will be the first to see that this action by the President sounds the death-knell of the hopes which they have always cherished that the merit system might be overthrown.

There have been four changes of administration since the law of 1883 was enacted. Only a few thousand places had been brought within the classified service before the end of Mr. Arthur's term, and Mr. Cleveland was so thoroughly committed to the reform that even the spoilsmen of his party recognized the folly of trying to make him undo his predecessor's work. In point of fact, he extended the system by material additions to the classified service during his first term. Mr. Harrison was not in warm sympathy with the reform, as he showed by suspending Mr. Cleveland's too-long-delayed order regarding the railway mail service; but he had been elected by too narrow a margin to render it prudent for him to take the back track any further then, and before the end of his four years he had been so far converted to a belief in the new system as to make some extensions of it. When Mr. Cleveland was elected the second time, everybody knew that the only steps taken in this matter would be steps forward.

The crucial test came with the accession of Mr. McKinley. During the last year of his second term Mr. Cleveland had made wholesale additions to the classified service, until substantially all the places in the whole civil service, except the small post-offices at one end and the most important positions at the other, were removed from the reach of the spoilsmen. The professional politicians in the Republican party had never sympathized with the reform, nor intended to live up to platform pledges that it should be extended. They only awaited a favorable opportunity to attempt its betrayal. The overwhelming majority for the Presidential candidate of their party last fall, and the well-known disposition of that candidate to yield to importunity, seemed to bring the man and the hour together. So confident were Gen. Grosvenor and other notorious spoilsmen that they would have their way at the White House that they had the Ohio Republican State convention, a month ago, adopt a resolution that "we denounce the vitiation of the spirit of the civil-service act by President Cleveland in those orders which extended its operation beyond its purpose and intent, and demand such revocation of orders or modification of the law as will accomplish its manifest purpose."

The assurance of the spoilsmen that they would carry their point was confirmed three weeks ago by an extraordinary announcement in the chief Republican organ of the country. The Washington correspondent of the New York *Tribune*, explaining that he made his statements "on authority," declared that the President would, "on or about the 20th of the present month," make important modifications of the civil-service rules, in order to "correct the partisan work of the late Administration in reference to certain inclusions in the classified service." These corrections, according to this "most important authoritative statement," were to exempt from competition the thousands of employees in the Government Printing-Office; deputy collectors, and other minor employees of the internal revenue service; the sub-officials and employees of federal marshals and district attorneys; and probably also "the chiefs of divisions and chiefs of bureaus and so forth."

Mr. McKinley had made so many surrenders in other matters that the *Tribune's* proclamation of his intention to yield here did not seem incredible. The attitude of the Ohio Republican convention, presided over by Grosvenor, one of the President's intimates, and absolutely controlled by Hanna, his next friend, had already aroused serious apprehensions. But the friends of the merit system resolved to utilize the fortnight of grace which the ostensibly "inspired" despatch allowed, to enter the most earnest protests and arouse the public sentiment of the country.

Whether the President ever intended to do what his chief organ "authoritatively" declared was his purpose, will probably never be known. Nor is the question any longer of importance. The vital point is that Mr. McKinley has not only refused to make the wholesale exemptions from competition which were threatened, but has brought a large number of new places within the classified service; while as to the few dozen places withdrawn, properly enough, from that service, he has ordered that examinations shall still be required equal to those held by the Civil-Service Commission for places of like grade, and that these examinations shall be conducted by the Commission. Most important of all, he has amended the rules so as to provide that "no removal shall be made from any position subject to competitive examination except for just cause, and upon written charges filed with the head of the department or other appointing officer, and of which the accused shall have full notice and an opportunity to make defence."

The President, then, has not only successfully resisted tremendous "pressure" to take a long step backwards, but has advanced further than the most sanguine reformer dared to expect. The executive orders of July 28, 1897, assure the stability of the merit system beyond possibility of further dispute, and will reflect enduring credit upon the President who has thus rendered a public service of signal advantage to the nation.

FOSTERING THE BEET-SUGAR INDUSTRY.

The *Tribune*, by an editorial in a recent number of its weekly edition, gives this bit of encouragement to the farmers of the United States:

> "Two years of war have almost destroyed the cane-sugar industry of Cuba, and an Imperial Commission is holding what seems much like an ante-mortem inquest upon that in the British West Indies. At the same time the beet-sugar industry in the United States has been greatly developed, and, under the energetic encouragement of the present Administration, bids fair to continue its growth at an accelerated rate."

What is this "energetic encouragement" of the present Administration? Is it the President's message asking $50,000 for suffering Americans in Cuba, which gave such joy to the Jingoes who seek to annex that cane-sugar factory? Or is it the proposed annexation of Hawaii, which will be fearfully irrevocable? To invite or advise or encourage the American farmer to embark his hard-won earnings and savings in a beet-sugar venture, and then to overwhelm his little craft with cane-sugar made by millionaires, assisted by coolies and "Japs" and cheap Portuguese, and cheaper natives, is that fair or honest? What is it but to invite the farmer to his own insolvency?

For what is Hawaii? Hawaii, economically speaking, is sixty millionaires. They constitute the capital, the business, the brains, the state. Report says that forty-five of them are Europeans and only fifteen Americans; or it may be that forty-five are Americans and only fifteen Europeans. But the matter of nativity is immaterial. In the eye of the present Administration, "a millionaire's a millionaire for a' that." If forty-five, or fifteen, were not born in America, it is their misfortune and not their fault. Besides these sixty millionaires, there are a few other people. But it is easy to demonstrate by elimination that **they have no part in the love and esteem of the present Administration.** There are 25,000 Japanese. **The present Administration respects the Japanese in a way—that is to say, when they are safe and sound and at work in their** own country; but it is sternly opposed **to their coming into America or its dependencies, or to their doing anything if they should chance to be here or there. There are 22,000 Chinamen, coolies at that. What the present Ad-**

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ministration thinks of Chinamen in general and coolies in particular is patent—everybody knows it, we need not dwell upon it. The worst enemy of the Administration will not say that it is trying to annex Hawaii for any love it bears towards these 47,000 "Japs" and coolies. There are 15,000 Portuguese. They are, figuratively speaking, white men; but they are cheap labor, and very low-down cheap labor—almost as cheap as the coolies. President McKinley surely cannot love them, much less can he desire to set them up in the business of making sugar, duty free, in competition with our own native beet-sugar industry. No, they must go out by elimination. There are 40,000 Hawaiians, full-bloods and half-breeds. The President, it is believed, once cherished a warm affection for these Hawaiians, but now they are known to have base monarchical proclivities with a hankering for a ruler of their own race, and a growing prejudice against sugar kings, English, German, and American. Moreover, it is suspected in Washington—it is, indeed, believed there—that their respect for Christian civilization has dwindled during the last dozen years. We must, therefore, cancel all of the red races! And there remains what? 8,400 white people of different nationalities and sixty millionaires!

But these Hawaiian millionaires, or sugar kings as they are sometimes called, are not absolutely unknown to the American Government. Some years ago they obtained from us a treaty whereby Hawaiian sugar—that is to say, their sugar—came into this country duty free, while the sugars of all other peoples paid duties. These duties, so remitted on Hawaiian sugar, amounted in round numbers to $60,000,000—a million per capita for each millionaire—when a Republican Congress put sugar upon the free list, and, in lieu of protection, substituted direct bounties to be given to American sugar-growers. It was then speedily discovered in Hawaii that annexation was the direct route to the American sugar-bounty system. That system has now gone by the board, and the financial necessities of the time have compelled us to restore the duties on sugar; and all students of finance, such as Mr. David A. Wells, regard sugar as one of the articles of importation best able to bear an import tax—as one which cannot be smuggled in, as one which cannot evade the revenue, as one which enters into general consumption, etc., etc. So it is not unlikely that a tariff on sugar will continue for many years to come.

The Hawaiian millionaires, however, have not been caught napping. Before the sugar duties were definitively established by Congress, the treaty of annexation was negotiated and signed and sent to the Senate for ratification. Under the new tariff, it is computed that the duties on Hawaiian sugar, if it should be made to pay duties, would amount to from $8,000,000 to $12,000,000 a year. In other words, the present Administration, with its eyes open or shut—probably with them shut—is binding the Government to pay bounties, amounting to at least $8,000,000 a year, upon Hawaiian sugar, to these sixty Hawaiian millionaires. Can the American sugar industry stand up against such favoritism as that? Can the Secretary of Agriculture fight successfully for home-grown sugar against such odds as these?

We observe that Count Okuma, the Japanese Minister of Foreign Affairs, who seems to know as much about Hawaii and American sugar culture as the present Administration, has just brought into view the unpleasant facts that of the 8,400 white people proper in Hawaii only 3,000 or thereabout—men, women, and children—are Americans, while the number of persons in America engaged in the culture of cane, beet, sorghum, and other sugar is 150,000. The Japanese statesman perceives clearly the effects of annexation; so clearly that he can ascribe but one motive to the present Administration. He says, in an explanatory way, that a duty on Hawaiian sugar will of course protect 150,000 American sugar-producers, but that it would be at the expense of the vast body of consumers in America; and therefore it is, he infers, that we are trying to avoid that "calamity by means of annexation." It takes one's breath away to hear protection to an infant industry spoken of as a "calamity," and to be told that the present Administration is trying to evade the "calamity" by throwing the loss upon 150,000 American sugar-producers. This supposition of bad faith we do not countenance. The trouble is that the millionaires know a great deal too much for the President. It really seems as if he cannot exchange the courtesies of the morning or the compliments of the season with a millionaire without the latter's immediately turning round and making money out of the civility. But the consequence of their sharpness and smartness and of the President's amiable credence is that we are now in this evil plight—that we are about to stab the beet-sugar industry under the fifth rib, and bring loss and disappointment and bitterness upon 150,000 American sugar-producers, and pay a bonus of $8,000,000 a year upon Hawaiian sugar to the end that the Government of the United States may acquire title to 25,000 Japanese, 22,000 Chinamen, 15,000 Portuguese, 40,000 native Hawaiians, and 8,400 white persons. That the United States will thereby become the owners of the sixty millionaires, we do not believe. On the contrary, it seems much more likely, as things are going, that the sixty millionaires in a reasonable time will become the owners of no inconsiderable part of the Government of the United States.

CANADIAN PROSPECTS.

To determine the policy of so remarkable a concatenation of petty states as makes up the Dominion of Canada has been no simple task. The territories occupied by these states are connected by nature with our own land, and it was by accident that this natural connection did not result in a community of government. So far as human happiness is concerned, the difference might not have been great had the policy of the United States been more liberal. For a number of years, under the reciprocity treaty, commerce between the two countries was not oppressively restricted, but since the repeal of that treaty our policy has been to discourage trade with Canada, and to create artificial barriers to intercourse where nature had removed them. The United States, therefore, forced the Canadian colonies to combine in self-defence, and in this way compelled them to undertake very comprehensive schemes for intercolonial communication. As the United States had built the Union and Central Pacific Railways in order to hold California in the Union, so the Dominion of Canada was obliged to construct a railroad to British Columbia, and another to Nova Scotia, for the sake of consolidating its diverse elements. Immense sums have been spent on these enterprises, in the construction of canals, and in subsidizing lines of steamships. Very heavy burdens have in this way been imposed on the people, and the debt increases year by year. It is now more than $250,000,000, and the annual expenditure is probably about $32,000,000. The Intercolonial Railway is said to have cost more than $55,000,000, and the accumulated deficits from its operation exceed $6,000,000. Nevertheless, it must be said that the credit of the Dominion is extremely high, so that its interest charges are moderate, and that its public works are not altogether unproductive of revenue.

Thus, by force of circumstances and by deliberate choice, the trade of Canada was determined to be a foreign trade. The United States raised barriers against the natural course of trade, and the Canadians removed the barriers to the foreign commerce which was all that was left free to them. But, with a most perverse folly, they proceeded to build other barriers in their places. They dug canals and built railways and subsidized steamships in order to increase their foreign commerce, and then they clapped on protective taxes in order to diminish it. The consequences were what might have been expected. Foreign commerce increased very little, while the protected manufacturers made but a sickly growth. The vast system

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of transportation seemed to have been created after all principally to enrich a few unscrupulous speculators and politicians, and to be more of an incubus than a benefit to the country.

The recent success of the Liberal party has greatly changed the situation. It is, under Sir Wilfred Laurier's leadership, a free-trade party, and this at once makes it possible for the Dominion to adopt and pursue a rational and consistent policy. Whether state aid to railroads and steamship lines is wise or not, it is unquestionably the part of wisdom to lay no obstacles in the way of the traffic to facilitate which so much money has been spent. Very properly the Canadian Government has endeavored to reach some understanding with that of the United States whereby the natural avenues of commerce might be thrown open. Had this result been accomplished, the great Canadian transportation lines would have been deprived of much of their importance, but the gains would have far outweighed the losses. The United States, however, persisted in its hostility, and the Canadian Government at last took the decisive step of reducing the tariff on importations from England. It was not a long step—only a reduction of 12½ per cent. this year and as much more the year following. Yet it may have momentous consequences.

In the first place, it puts an end to the hopes of the protectionists, both in England and the colonies, that an imperial customs union might be formed on protective principles. Mr. Chamberlain silently gives up these hopes; Sir Charles Tupper cannot refrain from wailing an imprecation as he sees them dashed. The *post hoc, ergo propter hoc* argument, which is enough for most people, happens at this juncture in the United States to count in favor of protection. In Canada, happily, it will count the other way, and, with so much prosperity as now seems reasonably assured, the new tariff is likely to remain in force until the results become understood and appreciated. Trade with the United States will suffer, but trade with England will improve, and the history of that Power shows that freedom from legislative meddling may be a greater stimulus to trade than natural advantages. Mr. Goldwin Smith points to the map, and conclusively demonstrates the folly of separating Canada from the United States. Separation, however, has become our settled policy, and the commercial union with England which we have forced on Canada will grow closer and stronger as years go on.

What is of greater consequence, the action of the Canadian Government will tend to revive the cause of free trade. Its immediate effect has been somewhat paradoxical, England having been obliged to notify Germany and Belgium that her treaties with them would be terminated. The Canadian Government does not see how revenue is to be insured if it reduces duties generally, and it proposes, for the present at least, to limit the reduction to countries admitting Canadian products free, which, under the present treaties, would involve a reduction on German and Belgian products. These treaties, however, have nothing to do with the theory of free trade. That theory contemplates the abolition of protective duties, and, as a matter of fact, Canada has partly abolished them. She has not carried the theory out, but she has made a beginning. There is ground for hope that, when the example of her colonies has been added to that of England, the other nations of the earth may at last be convinced that their policy of reciprocal injury is a survival of barbarism.

THE NEW SAYINGS OF JESUS.

Great interest was aroused among Biblical critics when, some months ago, a telegram was sent to the British Museum from Egypt that a papyrus fragment had been found containing hitherto unknown sayings of Jesus. These have now been published in facsimile, and are seen to consist of eight different *logia*, or sayings, some of them overlapping words attributed to Jesus in the canonical Gospels, and others entirely new. It is too soon to say whether critical opinion will decide the fragments to be authentic. There is no higher authority in such matters than Prof. Rendel Harris, and he accepts the authenticity as almost unquestionable; so does Prof. B. W. Bacon of Yale. But, quite apart from these nicer questions of technical scholarship, there is much in the discovery, and in its reception by the Christian world, to excite remark.

For one thing, it is an extraordinary vindication of the much-reviled higher criticism of the New Testament. One of the conclusions of that criticism has long been that the synoptic Gospels derive from a common original source now lost. A clear and convincing exposition of the grounds for that belief may be seen by going no further than the article "Gospels" in the 'Britannica,' by Dr. E. A. Abbott. In fact, critics had come to speak familiarly, using a phrase of Papias's, of *logia* of Jesus—collections of short, pithy savings—as having been indubitably in existence and made use of by the writers of our Gospels. They based this on internal evidence. No such collection, or even a fragment of such a collection, had ever been found, and conservative theologians had scouted the whole theory and predicted that nothing of the kind ever would be discovered. Well, here is the Egyptian papyrus to justify the critics. Even if it be decided not to be authentic, it points necessarily to the actual existence of *logia* which were authentic. No forged or heretical collection could have been set circulating unless there were genuine ones with which it might hope to be confused. The discovery, therefore, establishes the scientific validity of the New Testament higher criticism beyond cavil. It is only a valid science that can predict the unknown; and this Egyptian find of Messrs. Grenfell and Hunt does for the methods of the New Testament critics what the discovery of Neptune did for Leverrier's mathematics—establishes them as incontrovertible.

The calm, not to say indifferent, reception of the discovery by the theological world, by the organs of religious opinion in general, is a thing to make people with memories rub their eyes. It would not have been possible fifty, or even twenty-five, years ago. We should have had hasty champions rushing forward to declare the whole affair incredible, an invention of the Evil One to try the faith of the elect. The solemn threat of the Scriptures against any man who should "add unto the words of the prophecy of this book" would have been levelled at the audacious discoverers and publishers of the *logia*. But things have changed, even with those who vow that they have not changed. It is not simply the growth of tolerance that makes the difference; it is the growth of knowledge. Many things have combined within the past twenty years to popularize information about the real nature of the Bible. There was the Revised Version, which led many Christian people to hear for the first time of manuscripts and texts and versions and variants and interpolations. The result could not have been other than a serious shock—all the more serious because silent and unperceived—to the old idea of the sacrosanct character of every word and letter in our English Bible. Then there was the remarkable recovery, a few years ago, of the "Teaching of the Twelve Apostles"—a discovery illustrating the lost riches of the early Christian era, and naturally arousing hopes of unearthing more such treasures. Thus the finding of the *logia* has come to a Christendom prepared for them, as it were. Instead of surprise or alarm, the uppermost feeling of the Christian world seems to be an ardent hope that investigation may be pushed, and others of the lost *logia* brought to light. This result is gratifying in every way.

Let no one suppose, however, that the discovery is going to make any immediate change in the current Christian theory of the Bible. Not even the defenders of a slavish verbal inspiration will abate one jot of their claims; they will rather find new support for their doctrines in the discovery, just as they have in every other argument or fact that seemed to make dead against them. Theological theories and ecclesiastical prejudices have an astonishing power of bolting inconvenient facts whole, and it

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will not fail to be applied to the new-found "sayings." Catholic and Protestant, High and Low Church, Reformed Episcopalian, Pre-Millenarian and Antipedobaptist will each find in the new evidence the one thing that was lacking—if anything at all could be conceived lacking—to make his view irrefragable. We shall see plenty of this instinctive theorizing, whence the fact looks to the eye as the eye likes the look.

But no one, we think, can consider the discovery of the "sayings" in a large and dispassionate way without seeing that it really makes for the confirmation of the Gospels. In the case of any other narrative, the coming to light of the material upon which it was based would be hailed as a ground for renewed confidence in it, and so it will doubtless be, broadly speaking, with the Gospel narrative and its sources. Nor can it be thought any derogation from the Founder of Christianity that he made "current coin," to use Tennyson's phrase, of many more "truths of manhood" than find record in the canonical Gospels; indeed, to suppose that he did not would be to deny what one Gospel expressly asserts. The fact is that the essentials of Christianity are now beyond being moved from the rock on which they are built by any antiquarian discovery that can be imagined. This is not meant in any mystical or Hegelian sense, but is only to say that the truth and beauty of the life and teachings of Christ have so commended themselves to the minds and consciences of men, have become so inwrought with the whole complex of modern civilization, that they are practically independent of external evidence. In this sense Browning's prophecy, in "A Death in the Desert," is already fulfilled, that

"He will grow incorporate with all."

THE YUKON GOLD FIELDS.

OBERLIN, July 29, 1897.

For a long time it has been known that the general geological features connected with the production of gold in the western portion of the United States extended through the western part of British America to the upper Yukon district on the eastern border of Alaska. For more than forty years a continual stream of gold has been coming out of the region drained by the upper portion of Fraser River; while early in the seventies it was discovered in large quantities about the headwaters of the Stikeen River, which enters the Pacific about latitude 57, and of Dease River, which, rising west of the Rocky Mountain chain, flows eastward from near the same latitude to Mackenzie's River. The headwaters of these two streams are in the same broad valley which, north as well as south, separates the Rocky Mountain from the Cordilleran chain that here forms the continental border of British Columbia. From the Cassiar mines at the head of Dease River $1,000,000 of gold was taken out in 1874, the second year after their discovery. The next year the product was nearly as much; but from that time it has gradually decreased, until now the mines are nearly abandoned. Upwards of $5,000,000 worth of gold has, however, been added to the world's stock of gold from that region.

Northward, this broad valley includes the headwaters of the Taku River (which reaches tide near Juneau), and extends without interruption to the headwaters of the principal tributary of Lewis River, which is the real continuation of the Yukon. This elevated valley is the one partially surveyed forty years ago for the trans-Siberian telegraph route, and more lately for a railroad through British territory to the Yukon district. The railroad company recently organized in Delaware to reach the new Eldorado proposes to utilize this plateau through the Taku River. From the reconnaissance of the region made in 1891 by Lieut. Schwatka and Dr. Willard Hayes of the United States Geological Survey, it would seem that this route would be entirely practicable, for summer use at least.

As early as 1887 the explorations of Dr. George M. Dawson and Messrs. R. G. McConnell and W. Ogilvie of the Canadian Geological Survey demonstrated the continuation of the geologic conditions favorable to the production of gold through the Yukon district as far as the sixty-sixth parallel. Commenting upon the formations near the mouth of the "Tatondac" (the old name for Klondike), Mr. McConnell said at that time:

"The schistose beds alternate occasionally with limestone bands, altered in places into marble, and are traversed in all directions by quartz veins. They are exposed all the way to Forty Mile Creek and beyond. They are of the greatest economic importance, as they constitute the gold-bearing rocks of the district, and are on the strike of the same metalliferous zone on which Cassiar and other principal mining camps to the south are situated, and which has now been traced northward across Canadian territory from the forty-ninth parallel to the eastern boundary of Alaska, a distance of fully twelve hundred miles."

But the prospectors had been in this region before the geologists, and 200 miners were already at work there in 1887, and had sent out more than $100,000 worth of gold in a single year from Forty Mile Creek; while the previous year the Stewart River region, a little farther up in the Yukon valley, had produced $100,000. Indeed, according to Dr. Dawson's report, gold was to be found along almost any of the eastern tributaries of the Yukon from the international boundary to its source. But the expense of working the "bars" was such that unless one could get more than ten dollars a day it was not worth while to bother with them. The Governor of Alaska reported 1,000 miners in the Yukon district in 1893 and 1894.

In estimating the significance of the fabulous success which has attended the miners in that region the past year, it is important to consider some of the drawbacks and hazards of the situation. Placer mines owe their richness to the accumulation of ages. The mills of the gods, though grinding very slowly, have been at work for incredibly long periods of time. On an average, subaerial agencies are wearing down the surfaces of the continents at a rate of a foot in about 3,000 years, while the mountains and the river valleys are wearing away much faster. It is not too much to believe, therefore, that thousands of feet of rocks in the upper Yukon basin have been dissolved by subaerial agencies, and their soluble and lighter portions carried away to the depths of the sea by the mighty current of the river. Even the quartz is ground to powder and borne away by the ever-recurring floods in the innumerable streams. Gold is seven times heavier than gravel, and, therefore, settles to the bottom of the gravel beds into which it is washed.

From this it can readily be seen how deceptive a rich placer mine may be as to the richness of the quartz vein from which it is derived. A small yield to the ton amounts to a great deal if a large amount is crushed and separated. For example, the Treadwell mine, near Juneau, yields but three or four dollars of gold to the ton, but the vein is very wide and rises directly from tide-water at the base of the mountain, which furnishes water-power in abundance. Everything, therefore, is present to insure the greatest economy in working. The quartz ore is stripped off from the surface of the mountain at a moderate elevation, from which gravity carries the cars to the top of the mill, where water-power from the same mountain drives the stamping machinery, allowing the product to descend of its own weight to the basement, where the waste is dumped into the sea. With such economy in working the mill, a very low-grade ore can be made profitable. The million dollars a year turned out from the Treadwell mine is largely profit. But were this vein transferred inland for a few miles, especially in that rugged region, the cost would easily more than equal the returns. As there is every evidence that enormous glaciers have ploughed their way through the channel which passes Juneau, it is evident that nature has crushed and "milled" more of this quartz vein than man will be able to do in centuries, with all his labor-saving appliances. If, therefore, we could explore and utilize the depths of the Alexander Archipelago and bring up its buried treasures, there is no telling what riches we should find.

While the accumulated gravels spread out on the flanks of the mountains of California and of the Yukon region afford man an opportunity of penetrating some of the great storehouses of nature's workshop, the above illustration shows how futile may be the effort to find the "mother lode" from which the accumulations have come. For, even if found, it may be of such low-grade ore that it would be unprofitable to work it under favorable conditions, to say nothing of the futility of working it where the miners think a placer which does not "pan out" more than ten dollars a day is too poor to look at.

The inaccessibility of the Klondike region must long preclude it from yielding its full resources. Entrance by way of the Yukon River involves a hazardous journey on that stream of nearly 2,000 miles from its mouth, which can be made only from June to September. To attempt this voyage a week too late in the fall means certain destruction. All the means of subsistence must be carried into the country, for its natural resources of food are exhausted by the few hundred natives that have heretofore occupied it. Moreover, the placer mines are not directly on the Yukon, but many miles back from it on the tributaries. So difficult is this part of the transportation that dogs of burden bring a price of from $100 to $200 apiece. One of the articles of greatest pro-

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fit for the hardware merchants of Seattle in fitting out the Alaskan miners for the last three or four years has been these Eskimo dogs, of which each man needs two or three.

The nearer way by the Chilcoot Pass is at present no less formidable. Here, after wending one's way up the precipitous trail on the south side, rising four or five thousand feet in a few miles, the path leading over enormous piles of débris and across numerous glacial streams, the pilgrim finds himself, when at the top, five hundred miles from the mines with a tempestuous mountain torrent to navigate in its downward course to the far distant sea. It is no wonder that wages are cheap in the Klondike region at fifteen dollars a day. The bare means of subsistence will cost nearly that. But woe to the inconsiderate multitudes that get into the trap this fall without a sufficient supply of food and clothing, for during the winter they are beyond reach by any means at the present command of the civilized world. After a year or two, however, many of these difficulties can be removed and many of the contingencies provided against. A sufficient force of boats may be put on the Yukon to transport all that is needed during the short period of navigation. The Chilcat Pass and the White Pass, which are nearly parallel with the Chilcoot Pass, while a little longer, are more favorable to the construction of a trail for pack-animals to the navigable portion of the Yukon, or the Lewis, as it is there called. If the present productiveness of the mines continues, even the railroad by way of Taku Inlet may be built, and operated a portion of each year. But, in any event, the cost of overcoming the difficulties of transportation of large supplies to the region must be enormous.

The most hopeful outlook is in the introduction of reindeer, a beginning of which has already been accomplished. Through the energy of Mr. Sheldon Jackson, 500 reindeer have been imported by the Government from Siberia into the lower Yukon region, and with them several Lapland families to care for them. The flocks have already increased in the natural manner to more than 1,000, and the natives are learning to care for and manage them. An experiment is being made of using them for transportation in the mining country. Indeed, the introduction of reindeer into Alaska is one of the most philanthropic and hopeful enterprises of the century. The Government has moved none too soon in the matter, and should greatly increase its efforts in that direction. Unlike the dog, the reindeer needs to have no food transported for him. After an eighty-mile drive he can be turned loose to forage for himself upon the abundant reindeer moss which covers all the Alaskan fields. When it is necessary to kill him, he furnishes better meat than the dog and more of it, while his skin, and, indeed, every portion of his body, is of superior value. Commissioner Harris estimates that Alaska is capable of supporting many millions of reindeer, and with them a proportionate number of keepers with their families. The civilization of Lapland is therefore in a fair way to be transplanted to our northwestern province, and may serve as a most important connecting link with the great mining interests of the upper Yukon valley. The reindeer express up the Yukon will be almost as fleet as, and far more sure than, the steam-cars could be during the inclemency of an Alaskan winter.

In addition to the inaccessibility of the Klondike region, the temperature is extreme both in summer and in winter. A year ago the reported variation of the thermometer was from 60 below to 103 above zero. The mosquitoes of the country are also more formidable than those of any other region of the world from which reports have come. Schwatka affirms that even the grizzly bear succumbs to the vicious attacks of the Alaskan mosquito. And it can easily be believed, for when Bruin comes out of his lair to feed upon the succulent food of the valleys in summer, these pests swarm around him and feast upon the blood of his eyelids until, in his desperation, he claws his own eyes out in vain endeavor to rid himself of them; thus, like blind Samson, compassing his own destruction in securing that of his enemies.

In forecasting the future of the gold product from this region it should not be forgotten that the returns have been far slower in coming in than they were from California. The California discoveries were made in 1848. Within two years from that time more than twenty millions had been secured. There has been no such rapid work in the Yukon district. Probably it is because there is no such general distribution of rich placers. Nor should we be too enthusiastic over the occurrence of occasional large nuggets of gold. Many years ago a nugget of gold weighing twenty-eight pounds avoirdupois was found in North Carolina, and others of equal weight have been found in regions which have not been specially productive. The goose that lays such golden eggs, though a rare bird, has wandered widely over the world.

A word should be added about the new names appearing in the abundant literature that is springing up. "Klondyke," as already remarked, is the new way of pronouncing "Thronduic," or "Tondak," which means plenty of fish. It is marked Tondak, or Tatondac, on the maps. The word Dei-a is the same as was formerly spelled "Tayay" or "Dayay," the name of the inlet above Chilcoot which has led to the favorite pass into the headwaters of the upper Yukon. The Chilcat Pass branches off to the west from this, and the White Pass to the east; but all three meet about 100 miles beyond. Schwatka's report still gives the most minute information concerning this route.

G. Frederick Wright.

ELECTRICITY FROM DUST DESTRUCTION.

London, July 27, 1897.

The horn of Shoreditch is exalted. To use what passes for an Americanism on this side, she has licked creation. And this is how she has achieved that proud eminence.

Shoreditch forms a London parliamentary borough on the north side of the Thames and in the East Central District. It has an area of one square mile and a population of 124,009, with the largest proportion of artisans of any London borough, viz., 35 per cent. Shoreditch is therefore poor. To the impartial eye it has rather a grubby and frowsy appearance, as of one not addicted to the use of the bath, and indifferent to the high sense of morality conferred by clean linen and hygienic surroundings. But, on the other hand, Shoreditch has proved herself not only up to date, but capable of setting the pace municipal.

On one of the last days of June, Lord Kelvin, our greatest living scientist, travelled to Shoreditch, spoke all these and many other handsome things of the borough, and formally declared open the Combined Electricity and Dust Destruction Undertaking, the object of his visit to the wise East. In consequence of Jubilation and the resulting dislocation of business, it was exactly three weeks before I could follow Lord Kelvin's example and inspect the C. E. and D. D. U. What I saw is well worth a brief description. The first claim of Shoreditch to universal admiration is that she had the sense to elect wise stewards of that which is committed to their care, and that the vestrymen chose a capable clerk, Dr. H. Mansfield Robinson, to conduct their affairs. Many an electric-lighting company had wished to light up Shoreditch, for, as already said, its area is but one square mile, its population is dense, many of the people requiring a light motor for the staple industry of the borough, furniture and cabinet-making; besides, public-houses abound, to the number of 300, and they are the great consumers of electricity until a very late hour (12:30 P. M.), although many other small shops successfully rival their bad example.

But Shoreditch resisted the wiles of electric-lighting companies, and in 1892 obtained the consent of the Board of Trade to furnish its own electricity for public and private purposes. Other English corporations—to wit, Bradford, Brighton, St. Pancras—have produced their own electricity, and have calmly put the profits of monopoly into the municipal pocket. But it was reserved for Shoreditch to produce electricity from dust—"E pulvere lux et vis," as the corporation now proudly boasts. Shoreditch produces daily between fifty and sixty tons of dust and house refuse, and for the removal of this to the sea by barging it used to pay 3s. 2d. per ton. The problem for the municipality was to burn the dust to make electric light, and, incredible as it may seem, this is what is being done to-day. The whole municipal world is agape with admiration. Every day visitors come from the most remote local bodies, and depart determined to do likewise. Out of that dust, the destructor produces steam, and the steam is used to drive a great high-tension engine producing 1,100 volts of electricity from each of three generators; there are, besides, three low-tension dynamos, each producing 165 volts. One would like to say that the electric-lighting station is handsome, but truth compels the admission that it is more utilitarian than elegant. However, it is respectable, and it ought to be chronicled that the site, which also serves for baths, wash-houses, Central Library, Museum, and is very close to the municipal technical school, cost £33,500. The total cost of these different schemes is very nearly £200,000.

Naturally the complete scientific description of this undertaking belongs to an engineering paper. But the main outlines of the scheme are well within the grasp of the unscientific mind. Between fifty and sixty tons of refuse are brought to the Dust Destructor daily, and tipped from the carts into lifts. These are moved by electricity up to the tipping platform, run on rails and emptied into bins from which the furnaces are fed. There are twelve destructor cells, or furnaces, with the large heating

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area of twenty-five square feet each, and also six water-tube boilers at the side, each with 1,300 square feet of heating surface. Now it is evident that dust and refuse will not burn as coal burns. To coax it to burn, there are motor-driven fans which cause a strong current of air to circulate. Each fan makes from 500 to 700 revolutions per minute. The hot air is drawn by suction from the top of the engine-house, forced into an air-duct by the fans, and goes underneath the cells and boilers to compel the refuse to burn. The air-supply is carefully regulated by valves, so that in case of coal or other easily burning fuel being used, it can be cut off. It was evident that dust is collected and preferably burned in the daytime; whereas night is the great time for using electricity. Dust destruction continues day and night at Shoreditch, twelve men stoking in three shifts of eight hours each, four to a shift. The question was, how to save up the steam generated in the daytime for use at night. This has been achieved by the Druitt Halpin thermal storage system, by which steam passes into a cylinder and is mixed with a small quantity of cold water from the feed-pumps. This steam is supplied to boilers in connection with the dynamos, and by this arrangement the boilers evaporate one-third more steam than would be the case if they were connected with the water-mains.

There remains to consider the waste product of the refuse, which is reduced to about 30 per cent. of its original bulk. At present it is given away; but there is little doubt that a market will arise for it. It can be ground down to make good sand for mortar of excellent quality for bricks, for artificial paving-stone, concrete, and also for drainage and road-making before macadam is laid down. The Shoreditch vestry are at present considering the advisability of grinding the ash and using or selling it themselves as a subsidiary industry. There is absolutely no coal used in the destructor cells, nothing but refuse. Lord Kelvin, for my benefit, calculated that from five to ten tons of dust is equal to one ton of good steam coal; some dust is full of cinders, especially in winter, and is better for cremation purposes than summer dust. The vestry clerk calculates that, in view of the large sum formerly paid for the barging of the dust, the saving of fuel for the baths and washhouses, and the receipts by the sale of electricity, there will be an annual economy of £1,500. This is probably much below the mark. For the purposes of your journal, the vestry clerk communicates the fact that all the electricity the machinery can now yield is taken up, and no fresh customers can be supplied until more machinery is added. Additional engines and gear are now being built.

The electric-lighting station supplies the arc lamps with which Shoreditch streets are now lighted. At midnight these are switched off, and by automatic action incandescent lamps of less power are lighted until dawn. In case of accidental extinction of one set of lamps, the other set will light automatically. The station also lights the town-hall, lights and heats the baths and technical school, ventilates the sewers, supplies electric motor-power to cabinet-makers at specially low rates during the day-time, has entered into a contract with the Electric Cab Company, and supplies every private consumer, dealing tenderly with him in the matter of fittings. It is good to know that workmen's dwellings are being fitted with the Bastian penny-in-the-slot meter; for a penny the poorest home can have an eight-candle-power light for six hours. And, delightful thought, all this light is churned out of dirt!

It is, perhaps, fair to state that at Southampton there is a small thirty-horse-power engine worked by steam generated from the burning of refuse; but, naturally, this is on an insignificant scale. Shoreditch can undoubtedly claim the honor of being the pioneer municipality in combined electricity and dust destruction. C. S. BREMNER.

Notes.

Dr. Alexander Brown, author of the important work on the planting of North America by Englishmen (1605-1616) entitled 'The Genesis of the United States,' and published in 1891, invites subscriptions to a companion work, 'The First Republic in America' (1605-1627). This relates to the colonizing movement in the period last named, and about a third of its contents is largely a digest of the earlier narrative, yet embraces a good many contemporary documents discovered in the meantime; for again Dr. Brown has resorted to original sources, and writes not at second hand. 'The First Republic' will make an octavo volume of 550 pages, and will be elegantly manufactured by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. as soon as 350 subscribers (at six dollars) are obtained. Subscriptions may be addressed to the author at Norwood P. O., Nelson County, Virginia.

'The Old Santa Fé Trail,' by Col. Henry Inman, late of the United States Army, and 'Singing Verses for Children,' by Lydia Avery Coonley, with music and illustrations, are in the press of Macmillan Co.

Thomas Whittaker will issue next month a one-volume edition of Boswell's Life of Johnson, supervised by Percy Fitzgerald, and accompanied by a biographical dictionary of every person mentioned in the book.

Mr. Henry Farrar's 'Index to Marriages in the *Gentleman's Magazine*,' of which the first portion extended from 1731 to 1780, inclusive, is about to be finished to 1868. The edition is limited to 250 copies, and subscriptions at a guinea a volume for four volumes should be addressed to Swan Sonnenschein & Co., Paternoster Square, London. Only seventy-five copies will be printed of the same diligent compiler's 'Index to Marriages in Walker's *Hibernian Magazine* 1771-1813,' with a supplementary index to births, marriages, and deaths in the *Anthologia Hibernica* 1793-1794. This will make two volumes at two guineas, and is promised for October. Subscriptions may be made as above.

Mr. Quaritch will publish, in a folio edition of 300 copies, facsimiles of a series of ninety-nine early Italian drawings representing scenes and personages of sacred and profane history, formerly in the possession of Mr. Ruskin and by him given to the British Museum. It will be called 'A Florentine Picture Chronicle,' and in the accompanying letterpress the designer will be identified by Mr. Sidney Colvin with Maso Finiguerra. The text will be itself embellished with well-chosen contemporary designs from various sources.

A popular Life of the great Elizabethan statesman, William Cecil, Lord Burleigh, is being written by Major Martin Hume for Nisbet & Co., the London publishers. Lord Burleigh's descendants, the Marquesses of Exeter and Salisbury, have promised Major Hume access to the archives preserved at Burleigh and Hatfield respectively. Major Hume is especially qualified for the work he has undertaken from his close acquaintance with Burleigh's era. His 'Courtships of Queen Elizabeth' has run into a fifth edition. He made a decided hit with his book upon the Armada, and his forthcoming volume upon Sir Walter Raleigh, for the "Builders of the Empire" series already in the publishers' hands, but "delayed by the Jubilee," will maintain his reputation as an entertaining and accurate historical writer. His ever-busy pen is now engaged, among other things, upon a 'History of Modern Spain' for the Cambridge University Press.

Mr. George R. Parkin, principal of Canada College, Toronto, is now in London seeing through the press a Life of Dr. Thring, the famous headmaster of Uppingham School, a kind of latter-day Arnold of Rugby. The family of Dr. Thring intrusted the work to Mr. Parkin, who, however, is best known as an ardent advocate of imperial federation. At one of the public dinners given to Sir Albert Milne before his departure for South Africa, the present Governor of the Cape stated that he had been much influenced, when a young man at Oxford, by the eloquent exposition of imperial federation made by "a young Canadian" to the University, meaning Mr. Parkin.

It is understood that little progress has been made by Mr. Frederic Harrison with his Life of William the Silent.

The Life of Tasman, the navigator, upon which Mr. Coote of the British Museum and Mynheer Heeres of The Hague have long been engaged, will not appear for some time, owing to Mr. Coote's engagements with other business. The Log of Tasman, which was discovered at The Hague, will form a prominent feature in the work of the two able authors.

Prof. Adolph Ernst, the Curator of the National Museum at Caracas, has recently been examining the records of British Guiana and of Dutch Guiana (Surinam), at the instance of the Government of Venezuela. Dr. Ernst is a German by nationality, but has been settled in Venezuela for thirty-six years. He is familiar with the Spanish, Dutch, and English languages.

The Year-book of the Massachusetts Society of Colonial Wars, in addition to lists of the members and their ancestry, contains Mr. A. C. Goodell's address at the celebration of the six-hundredth anniversary of the first representative English Parliament, and some interesting historical materials. These are the muster-rolls, etc., of the successful expedition against Port Royal, Nova Scotia, in 1710, as well as a journal of the expedition preserved in the Public Record Office, London, and now printed for the first time. This is followed by a curious list of "the names of the men belonging to the north regiment in Essex opoint[d] to keep snowshoes and mogginsons," and also a list of English prisoners in Canada in 1710, the larger part being from the towns of York, Wells, Exeter, and Oyster River. There is also a brief account of the unfortunate expedition of Admiral Sir Hovenden Walker against Quebec in 1711. The volume, which has several

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illustrations and a portrait of the late Mr. H. O. Houghton, is unusually attractive in its typography and general appearance.

Mr. Hamlin Garland has earned the distinction of a uniform edition of his stories. A handsome set of four volumes, his 'Spoil of Office,' 'Wayside Courtships,' 'Jason Edwards,' and 'A Member of the Third House,' has just been issued by D. Appleton & Co.

A little volume, 'The Missions of California: Their Establishment, Progress, and Decay,' by Laura Bride Powers (San Francisco: William Doxey), will serve the cause the author has at heart, the preservation of the buildings of the missions. She writes agreeably and with ardor, and presents conveniently the leading facts about the several missions described and (for the most part) photographically shown. She does not always define the age of the present remains, or portray their condition, but says enough to excite a popular sentiment in favor of their preservation and restoration.

Mr. H. de B. Gibbins's 'Industry in England: Historical Outlines' (London: Methuen; New York: Scribners) will prove of great service to teachers of economic history and to students first attacking the subject. It is, indeed, so far as the greater part of its contents is concerned, hardly more than a compilation, chiefly from some eight or ten well-known writers; but, as a compilation, it is an excellent piece of work, methodical, thorough, and clearly written. In Mr. Gibbins the late Prof. Thorold Rogers has found almost his only quite respectful disciple; and though, with widening knowledge of his subject, Mr. Gibbins has lost much of the violence of expression and cocksureness of tone which he adopted from his master in his earlier writings, there is still a very visible bias to be allowed for. However, it is not difficult to make the allowance; and a little strong feeling certainly makes a book more interesting reading.

The Edinburgh professors of philosophy seem to be considerably exercised in their minds over the problem of teaching their fellow-men to know their place in nature, and otherwise. Such, at least, is the inference likely to be drawn from Prof. Andrew Seth's imitation of the title of Prof. Henry Calderwood's 'Man's Place in Nature.' 'Man's Place in the Cosmos' (Scribners) is certainly, as Prof. Seth acknowledges in the preface, a somewhat disproportionate, not to say turgid, title for a number of essays which discuss some of the chief literary events of the philosophic world during the last half-a-dozen years. In themselves Prof. Seth's criticisms are well enough; they are always unexceptionable in their tone and attitude, and sometimes even edifying, and the points made are sound in the main. But they are wholly critical, and make the reader feel more than ever that if Prof. Seth has anything original to say, he has yet to say it. Thus there may be two opinions on the question whether it was absolutely necessary that these papers should be gathered together and made into a book. For the rest, suffice it to say that the essay on Huxley's 'Evolution and Ethics' will be found the most interesting, and that on Mr. F. H. Bradley's jugglery in causing the "disappearance of reality" the most solid, while the quarter of the book devoted to a solemn defence of Mr. Arthur Balfour's brilliant *jeu d'esprit*, 'The Foundations of Belief,' constitutes an affecting tribute to gratitude and friendship.

Some articles by M. Pierre Leroy-Beaulieu descriptive of the English colonies in Australasia and South Africa have appeared within the last two years in the *Économiste Français* and the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, where they attracted attention, particularly because of the account they gave of the socialistic legislation of some of these communities. These articles have now been reprinted in book form under the title, 'Les Nouvelles Sociétés Anglo-Saxonnes' (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.). The book is to be recommended to those who desire to understand the history of these colonies as well as their present condition. It contains much statistical information derived from official publications, and it also contains many pages of effective description of nature, as well as of man and his works in the regions under review.

The same firm has published the fifth volume of the 'Discours et Opinions' of Jules Ferry. The volume is perhaps the most interesting of the series, containing, as it does, the speeches on the Tonkinese policy of the Minister—a policy which excited such bitter opposition at the time. The Egyptian question has also its share of this volume.

M. Henri Weil gives us a volume of 'Études sur le Drame Antique' (Paris: Hachette & Cie.), well written and instructive. The author devotes considerable space to the Promethean legend, examines the lyrical forms employed in Greek tragedy, and the rule of the three actors in Seneca's tragedies. The book is worth reading.

The twenty-first instalment of Hatzfeld, Darmesteter & Thomas's admirable French Dictionary ('Dictionnaire Général') carries the work along towards its much-desired completion, as far as *panicule*. The Paris publisher is Delagrave.

If the voice of the German people could reach the ear of Emperor William, an open letter by Dr. Bruno Wagener, 'Kaiser, höre die Wahrheit' (Leipzig: W. Friedrich), would hardly fail to make an impression upon that autocratic ruler. The author and publisher of the little brochure were prosecuted for leze-majesty, but were acquitted by the courts on the ground of the author's "patriotic standpoint" and "honest intention." The writer appeals to the Emperor to become a *Volkskaiser*, instead of remaining a *Hof-* and *Parteikaiser*. His tone is respectful, but such frank advice and earnest warnings are, of course, very unconventional.

In the June issue of *Folk-Lore* is given Miss Mary H. Kingsley's paper on the "Fetish View of the Human Soul," recently read before the Folklore Society. Beginning with the suggestion that a committee of the society be formed for the consideration of African folklore, in view of the great practical usefulness of "a careful and unprejudiced study of African beliefs and customs," Miss Kingsley proceeded to touch upon the terms Fetish and Ju Ju as practically equivalent, the former being of Portuguese, the latter of French derivation. The African did not, she said, divide up the world into God, man, and nature. A vague pantheism underlay Fetish, a conception involving few or no distinctions of kind, wherein man belongs to a high order of spirits, but not to the highest order. Many orders are below him; and above him, beyond his absolute control, are two great classes, while the order to which he belongs contains a vast number of spirits coequal with men, and yet not of mankind. The religion of Fetish is a scheme of conduct and precaution to regulate man's welfare in view of these complicated hierarchical relations. It is compatible with the general West African belief in a Supreme Great God, who cares not at all for his creatures, and whom they do not formally worship, though sometimes, after all Fetish observance has been resorted to in vain, there is a desperate final recourse to him. A human soul is never promoted or degraded in the scale of being; it lives on after the body dies, but not for ever; it is constantly reincarnated. Finally, each individual man is regarded as having four souls. Perhaps one of these is the soul proper, and the other three are aspects or senses.

President Tyler of William and Mary prints in the quarterly *Historical Magazine* of the college a paper, some three years old, confirming Prof. Jameson's study of Virginia voting in the colonial period as communicated to these columns in 1893. He finds indications of a perhaps still larger (*i. e.*, more general) polling, and hence a stronger democratic contrast to New England's comparatively restricted vote in the period under consideration.

From another quarter in the South besides Virginia we are getting fragments of censuses showing the number of slaves. To the Pulaski (Tenn.) *Citizen* of July 22 Mr. Flournoy Rivers contributes a list of heads of families, with slave holdings, of Giles County, from the census of 1820. He follows the census-taker day by day for seventeen days, and tracks his course by the family names, as, "I think he must have been S. W. of Pulaski on this day's work," and, "He has turned and gone up Big Creek, I think," and, "He had come down Pigeon Roost Creek and was working up the old Columbia Road." The list will be continued. The largest number of slaves assigned to a single owner is thirty-one; Elizabeth Edwards held twenty-five. There is perhaps a majority of non-slaveholders, and two free blacks are recorded.

The future of Nigeria was the subject of an interesting address by Sir G. Taubman-Goldie, Governor of the Royal Niger Company, before the London Chamber of Commerce. The territory ruled by his company, he explained, was divided into two sections, differing as widely from each other in the character and civilization of the people as England from China. The southern third, lying to the south of the Benue and about the lower Niger, is thinly inhabited by pagans of the lowest type. The remaining two-thirds, which may be called Hausaland, is thronged with an enterprising commercial and industrial people. With good government, he believes that this country will, "at no distant date, become as valuable as any equal area of British India." A question of the first importance, but presenting great difficulties, is how it shall be administered. Until commerce is sufficiently developed to produce a revenue, local government is impossible. The best form would appear to be a permanent council in London, whose duty should be, not as now to conduct the affairs of a trading company, but simply to develop and administer the country.

A very interesting exhibition was recently held at Munich, consisting of manufactured articles and specimens of drawing, penmanship, and needlework produced by the inmates of the Royal Bavarian Institu-

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tion for the Education of Crippled Children, a school which, though in existence for more than half a century, was until recently the only one of its kind in Germany. Within a year, however, a similar institution has been founded at Dresden, through the initiative of the Queen of Saxony, who had previously herself visited the school at Munich, and sent a teacher to study its arrangements and methods. The proficiency of the pupils at Munich, as shown by their work, was in many instances surprising. Samples of book-binding and various articles made of leather, such as pocket-books and valises, were of faultless workmanship. So were the sewing, knitting, art-embroidery, etc., done by one-armed girls. One of these unfortunates, who had partial control only of her badly crippled left hand, had learned to draw geometrical figures with great precision and an apparently firm stroke. The penmanship of several boys was absolutely perfect, and some of this year's graduates have been appointed court stenographers. The annual report of this admirable charity can be had of the inspector, I. Erhard, Klenzestrasse 54, Munich.

—Mrs. Bishop's account of her recent journey in western China, in the *Geographical Journal* for July, is a remarkable testimony to the capacities, resourcefulness, and enterprise of the Chinese who live beyond the influence of white civilization. They long ago grasped the idea that the prosperity of a country depends largely upon its roads, and a frequent method of displaying local patriotism is for a man to present a road to his district. Broad, flagged, shaded with superb avenues of trees, and thronged with burden-bearing coolies she found them, while here and there, especially in the rock galleries of the mountain passes, were tablets in honor of the donors. The correct principles of irrigation seem to have been discovered by these people, for the "boundless fertility and wealth" of the great plain of Cheng-tu and "its immunity for two thousand years from drought and floods" are the monument of the engineering genius of a man who lived B. C. 206. In some parts of the province coal is so abundant that "the children hack it daily" from the roadside for cooking purposes, while the traffic in it is enormous. "Every town and large village has its special industry—silk-weaving, straw-plaiting, hat-making, dressing hides, iron or brass-work, pottery and china, chair-making, dyeing, carving and gilding idols," paper-making, etc. The cultivation of the poppy, it may be said, is "annually trenching more and more on the rice lands." The scenery is surpassingly beautiful: heights crowned with castles; temples with porcelain fronts in rich coloring; bridges with roofs decorated in lacquer and gold; and "palatial" farmhouses in groves of cedars, bamboo, and fruit-trees, all amid "a paradise of greenery and fertility." In many of the towns the inhabitants are hostile to foreigners, and Mrs. Bishop was mobbed several times, once seriously injured, her most brutal assailants being men of the literary class. She crossed the border mountains into eastern Tibet to a region hitherto unvisited by a white traveller. The scenery was magnificent, and the inhabitants, the Mantzu, were interesting, the women being noteworthy for their great beauty and their equality with the men. In one instance her official escort consisted of "two handsome laughing girls, distaff in hand, fearless and full of fun." She succeeded in penetrating some distance into this country, when her further progress was stopped by a tribal war, and she returned to Cheng-tu by the same route, and reached Ichang in June, 1896, having travelled in four months and a half 1,200 miles by land and about 1,000 by water.

—The *Journal* also contains an account by Dr. Bell of the exploration of a recently discovered river flowing into the southernmost part of Hudson's Bay. Its basin, which is some 60,000 square miles in extent, has a soil suitable for agriculture, stock and dairy farming, is well wooded, and "promises to be rich in some kinds of economic minerals." The inhabitants consist of only some thirty or forty families of Crees. Among its fishes is a species of chub, which collects gravel and stones, "weighing from less than one ounce up to about one pound," and heaps them together in the bottom of the river, at a suitable spot for hatching its eggs—that is, in tolerably shallow water where there is a moderate current. A picture is given of one of these nests, which sometimes contain four or five tons of material. Col. G. E. Church contributes a careful and detailed account of Costa Rica, in which the most noteworthy fact is the slave-raids of certain rubber-collectors of Nicaragua, who plunder the settlements of the Guatusos, murder the adults, and capture the children, "whom they sell in San Carlos, Nicaragua, as 'servants,' at $40 to $50 per head." Each of these articles is accompanied by a map.

—The Royal Geographical Society of London, despite its recent ineffectual appeal to the Lords of the Admiralty for official assistance towards prosecuting the work of discovery in the south polar regions, has determined not to allow the matter which it has so warmly espoused to drop. The prospective starting of the Belgian expedition under command of Lieut. Gerlache, and the possible robbing of the honors that had been won for the British flag by Sir James Clark Ross somewhat more than half a century ago, were, in a measure, doubtless the incentive to the special appeals of the Geographical Society; but it is the happy fortune of that influential body to have in its chief, Sir Clements Markham, not only an enthusiast for polar exploration, but one of the ablest students of it, and one who has had some practical experience in arctic work himself. At a special conference recently held by the Society, which was attended by some of its most noted members, as, Sir Joseph Hooker, Admiral Sir George Nares, Admiral Sir Erasmus Ommanney, Admiral Wharton, and Sir John Kirk, and was designed to induce the Australasian premiers to bring the matter before their respective governments for coöperation in a general British expedition, a first practical step towards the formation of such an expedition was taken in the announcement that the Royal Geographical Society was prepared to contribute towards it any sum up to £5,000 to the amount which the colonial governments might subscribe. By those who have made a careful study of the needs of an antarctic expedition, it is believed that £10,000 to £12,000 would adequately equip one of moderate dimensions, which yet, under judicious leadership, would probably accomplish as much as the elaborate expeditions ordinarily organized under Government control. Doubtless, Victoria Land, almost due south of Australia, would be the objective point of British attack, and here a year's work could readily be accomplished for the sum mentioned.

—Among the sources, not yet explored, of the history of English colonization in America must be included the records of the High Court of Admiralty which are preserved in the Public Record Office, London. Work among these old documents is of a rather laborious nature. Students will, therefore, recognize the value of the volume recently published for the Selden Society, by Mr. Bernard Quaritch, of 'Select Pleas in the Court of Admiralty,' edited for the Society by Mr. Reginald G. Marsden. The new volume is the second publication of the kind, and covers the period from 1547 to 1602. The value of such documents may not be readily seen by the general reader, but, none the less, that value is very real. At the present time there is a lawsuit as regards the rights of the city of Colchester over fishing for oysters, which will be decided one way or the other according to the jurisdiction shown by some of these old Admiralty papers to have been exercised in years long past. To the student of American history, however, the most interesting portion of Mr. Marsden's volume is that section of his Introduction which treats of documents relating to transactions in the New World. Of records later than the reign of Queen Elizabeth, the following are noted by Mr. Marsden:

Voyage to Virginia (1633); Records of Admiralty Court of Jamaica (1662); Newfoundland Fishery; Voyage of the *Neptune* to Virginia, with Lord de la Warre as Captain-General; Non-delivery of passengers in Virginia; Negro "passengers"; Lord Baltimore *contra* Orchard: Desertion on Voyage to Maryland; Chesapeake Bay: Damages for not carrying provisions to Colonists; Export of Horses to Barbados; Lord Baltimore *c.* Kirke; Claim for destruction of boats and fish stages in Newfoundland—Ordinance of the King; The Dutch in Pernambuco; Cromwell's expedition to San Domingo and Jamaica; Hudson's Bay Company, Interloping, Validity of Charter: Carrying persons from Barbados without license; Captain Kidd, the Pirate; Sir Henry Morgan, Buccaneer and Governor of Jamaica; Lord Willoughby's agreement with Sir George Aisare as to the rendition of Barbados.

—Despite the numerous assurances that have been given regarding the entire trustworthiness of the method employed in what is known as the Dansan-Chassagne process for color-photography, it would now seem that the "selective" art that was claimed for it is not purely automatic. In other words, the coloring matters which are taken up by the photographic print do not fully attach themselves naturally to such parts of the print as would be of a like color had the image been produced in natural colors, but require for their adjustment—or, more properly, application—the hand of an operator especially discriminative in the selection of colors, as we are told that the results depend largely "on his judgment and skill in applying the colors in the right places." Mr. Henry Trueman Wood, who, in an announcement published in the early part of February last, is mainly responsible for throwing the photographic world into a flurry of expectation, and whose statements received the almost unreserved support of the distinguished President of the London Institute of Chemistry and of the

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British Photographic Society, Sir Frederick Abel, makes this admission in *Nature* of July 8. From his statements we learn that a result can be obtained by anybody after a little instruction, but only after working up the different parts of the picture through local hand applications of the different coloring liquids. That a certain natural selective power is exercised by the different tints is still maintained, but, as is rather pointedly remarked, the difficulty is "to satisfy one's self as to how far the process is purely mechanical and how far it is a matter of skill." Scientists will agree with Mr. Wood that, whatever may be the ultimate practical value of the process, it will still prove of theoretical interest if, as an outcome of it, it should be proved that a monochrome photograph has even the smallest power of color-selection, dependent upon the tints of the original.

—Dr. Fairclough's Johns Hopkins dissertation on 'The Attitude of the Greek Tragedians toward Nature' is a conscientious collection of the chief passages of Aeschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides, that bear on his theme. His results are, in the nature of the case, mostly commonplaces. "Every schoolboy knows" that the Greek tragedians let slip opportunities for purple patches of description which a modern would hardly neglect; that nature is for them mainly a stage for human action and passion; that they most frequently take their imagery from the sea and nautical pursuits; and that the utilitarian view of nature prevails over the sentimental in ancient poetry. More interesting are the statement that Aeschylus mentions no specific flower, the observation that the later plays of Sophocles reveal more feeling for nature than the earlier, and the ample illustration given of the sentimental modernity of Euripides as exhibited in the variety and picturesqueness of his flowers, fruits, and trees, his richer color vocabulary, his appreciation of aerial effects, his use of symbolism, and the "pathetic fallacy." The suggestion that Aristophanes was consciously parodying these Euripidean qualities in the "Frogs" arouses the attention, but is not borne out by the natural interpretation of the passages cited. The image in "Prometheus" 885 is probably not that of a muddy river rushing down to meet the clear seawater, but merely of the silt stirred up from the bottom. The "boy that pursues a flying bird" is proverbial. The metaphor of dewdrops for lion-whelps may reveal an Oriental fancy, but it belongs to the language rather than to the poet. It is found, by the way, in Wordsworth. Λεπτοψάμαθος ("Suppl." 4) is hardly an epithet of "material wealth." The meteorological πολυπράγμοσύνη noticed by the scholiast on the "Rhesus" is an altogether different thing from the modern feeling for nature, and in any case cannot make Euripidean authorship probable. It is an indisputable truth that "there is an utter absence of the sense of moral responsibility" in *Clytemnestra* when she likens herself, splashed with her husband's blood, to the corn-land shivering for delight "when the dew glistens on the pearled ears" in the birth-pang of the bud. But, as Pindar somewhere says, it is not best that every truth should show its face everywhere.

—Students of the law of evidence will be interested to know that a new edition of the 'Indian Evidence Act' (London and New York: Henry Frowde) has been issued, with brief notes, by Sir William Markby, formerly an Indian judge and now Reader in Indian Law at Oxford. Sir William is a well-known legal author. The Indian Evidence Act, as is known, was prepared by Fitzjames Stephen between twenty and thirty years ago. It was a crude production, but none the less it was quickly fastened upon India, and, with various amendments, is still the law there. The administration of it has caused much trouble. It is very instructive to read now the brief comments of the careful and exact thinker whose duty it is to expound this statute at Oxford. Many of his criticisms—"It was impossible," he says, "for me to conceal that I disagree entirely with some of Sir James Stephen's views on this subject"—are applicable to Stephen's well-known 'Digest of the Law of Evidence,' and they should be read by all who use that work. The Indian Evidence Act is, indeed, a sort of first draft of what afterwards became the Digest. Markby's searching comments on the topics of relevancy, the hearsay rule, character and opinion evidence, as well as other subjects will be found very useful. Stephen was far too rash and ill-instructed on this subject to have been allowed so free a hand. We should add that the author's notes are brief, and are intended "to assist students in preparing for their examinations."

PASTOR'S POPES OF THE RENAISSANCE.

Geschichte der Päpste im Zeitalter der Renaissance, von der Wahl Innocenz' VIII. bis zum Tode Julius' II. Von Ludwig Pastor. Freiburg i. B. 1895.

It is long since a more important contribution than Dr. Pastor's 'History of the Popes of the Renaissance' has been made to our knowledge of the pre-Reformation period. The present volume is the third, and it is to be hoped that the fourth, comprising the pontificate of Leo X., will not be long delayed by the author's diversion to the editorship of Janssen's 'Geschichte des deutschen Volkes.' For many years so much earnest research has been directed to the archives of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries that it would seem as though little could be left to glean, but Dr. Pastor's untiring diligence in all accessible depositories of documents has resulted in revealing many new and interesting details. Moreover, he has familiarized himself with the labors of all other scholars in the innumerable monographs which have done so much to elucidate doubtful questions and conflicting currents of thought, and to explain the tangled diplomacy and swift alternations of policy of that eventful time out of which the modern civilized world has developed. Nothing seems to have escaped his all-devouring industry, which is amply attested by the crowded references and piled-up authorities cited in the abundant footnotes—though this insatiable appetite for citation, indeed, does not always discriminate as to the character of authorities. It looks odd, to say the least, to see (p. 227) Florian's 'Gonzalve de Cordoue,' in a Spanish translation, gravely alleged as a source for the capture of Granada by Ferdinand and Isabella.

The importance of Dr. Pastor's work is not only thus intrinsic, but it is also extrinsic as a semi-official exposition of the Catholic view of the events which led up to the Reformation in the deep degradation of the Holy See of the Renaissance. The secret archives of the Vatican were thrown open to the author, even to the consistorial records and the Regesta of Alexander VI., which he tells us have been sealed books for three hundred years. His labors have been welcomed with acclamation by the faithful; they have won the special thanks of Leo XIII., and translations have already appeared in English, French, and Italian, while others are preparing in Spanish and Czech. It is evident that the book is to be regarded as the authoritative defence of the Church against the assaults of Protestant scholarship.

The position assumed by Dr. Pastor therefore becomes of interest to all students, irrespective of the facts which he has so laboriously accumulated. There is, on his part, evidently an earnest desire to be fair and impartial, and he unquestionably believes himself to be so. Nevertheless, the personal equation of the author renders his book not a little *tendenziös*. He is necessarily an Ultramontane, believing in the highest claims advanced by the Holy See as to the autocratic constitution of the Church, with the Pope as the irresponsible sovereign over all the faithful in the *temporalia ad spiritualia ordinata*, and it is impossible for him to write in a purely objective spirit. His faith is too robust to be shaken even by the intrigues and shameless bribery of the conclaves, so candidly described in his pages, through which successive popes gained the tiara. The motto from Leo I. prefixed to this volume—"The dignity of Peter is not lacking even in an unworthy heir"—indicates the task which he has set himself to execute, viz., to reconcile the vicariate of Christ with the wickedness which he has to relate of the vicars. Sixtus IV. he exculpates by attributing the foulness of his reign to the kindred with whom his nepotism afflicted Italy. The miserable Innocent VII., we are told, was the soul of goodness and kindness; it was his virtues rather than his faults which plunged the papacy into deeper degradation. Alexander VI., he admits, was depraved, but the atrocities which he committed and encouraged had at least a noble basis, the love of his kindred and especially of his children (p. 288)—a curious excuse for a pope bred to the Church and vowed to celibacy. Besides, he at least maintained the purity of the faith, and the value of a jewel like the papacy is not diminished by an unworthy setting (p. 475). Julius II. is Pastor's hero; there is no reproof of his faithlessness, of his tortuous policy, of his military enterprises; he is lauded without stint as the man who recovered and enlarged the papal territories and drove the French out of Italy, with scanty reference to the fact that he thereby firmly established Spain in Naples, thus rendering the peninsula the battle-ground between those two Powers, with the eventual result of Spanish domination. It is a slight but significant illustration of Dr. Pastor's apologetic attitude that when he has occasion (p. 557) to mention the betrothal of Julius's natural daughter Felice to Marcantonio Colonna, solemnized in Rome during her father's pontificate, he is careful to speak of her, not as the child of Julius, but of Cardinal Giuliano della Rovere—his ante-papal title.

The same probably unconscious tendency pervades the work, and renders it not wholly

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worthy of implicit confidence, in spite of the author's boundless learning and evident striving for minute accuracy of statement. It affects not only his judgment, but also his selection and presentation of facts. Thus, in his effort to prove that, in spite of the mocking spirit and heathenish tendency of the Renaissance, the popular masses were still deeply pious and moral, he devotes considerable space (pp. 26-34) to the Confraternities as evidence of the religious activity of the time, and from his description no one would imagine that they were aught but zealous associations for pious works, although the virtually unanimous testimony of the period is that their chief attraction was the riotous feasting and debauchery at their banquets; and Erasmus urged their suppression on the ground that they were nothing but conventicles of Comus and Bacchus. Dr. Pastor's treatment of usury is equally one-sided (pp. 79-82). He dwells on the exorbitant rates of usance customary at the time, but does not point out that this in great part arose from the prohibition and outlawry by the Church of any profit whatever for the loan of money or property, thus necessarily raising the interest charges of those who risked the punishment provided for the usurer; and, moreover, that, while forbidding the taking of interest by the laity, the Church permitted the ecclesiastical foundations thus to derive income from their surplus capital. Again, the neo-paganism of the Renaissance doubtless had much to answer for, but it was not responsible, as Dr. Pastor assumes (p. 97), for a revival of unnatural crime, the continued prevalence of which throughout the Middle Ages is sufficiently attested by St. Peter Damiani, Alain de Lille, Fra Giordano da Rivalto, and other moralists. Equally untenable is the assumption (p. 108) that the absurd confidence reposed in astrology during the fifteenth century is attributable to the Renaissance; for the so-called science had survived the ruin of the Roman civilization, and had been eagerly cultivated ever since the Barbarians had learned enough to comprehend its seductive promises. The papal legate who, in 1256, conducted the crusade against Ezzelino da Romano, was accompanied by a Dominican astrologer, and Ezzelino himself was surrounded by a corps of similar advisers.

Twice Dr. Pastor tells us (pp. 250, 486) that most of the popes of the fifteenth century showed great toleration for the Jews. It is the fashion nowadays to repudiate for the Church all responsibility for the hideous persecutions of the Middle Ages, and the impression which he thus seeks to convey is a *suggestio falsi*, for he omits all reference to the terrible bulls of Eugenius IV. in 1442 and of Nicholas V. in 1447, of which the object seems to have been to force the unhappy Hebrews to conversion by driving them to despair. There is a similar attempt (p. 251) to relieve the Church of the stigma of fostering the fearful witchcraft craze by arguing that the celebrated bull *Summis desiderantes* of Innocent VIII., in 1484, contained no doctrinal affirmation of the reality of witchcraft, and yet, as Innocent confirmed its punishment by the stake and forbade interference with his inquisitors by those who were incredulous, if he did not affirm its reality his action was mere wanton and purposeless cruelty. Dr. Pastor, moreover, is careful to confine himself to this bull, to which an undue importance has been attached, for it was only one of a long series through which the belief in witchcraft was sedulously strengthened by successive popes. Thus, he makes no allusion to similar utterances by Eugenius IV. in 1437 and 1445, by Nicholas V. in 1451, by Calixtus III. in 1457, by Pius II. in 1459, by Alexander VI. in 1494, and by Julius II. some ten years later. We shall be curious to see in the next volume how Dr. Pastor will handle the quarrel between Leo X. and the republic of Venice when the latter defended the so-called witches of Valcamonica against the papal inquisitors.

The same tendency pervades our author's vigorous characterization of Machiavelli, in whom he recognizes the incarnation of the pagan Renaissance. He is reproached (p. 121) with regarding religion as merely a useful tool of statecraft, but Dr. Pastor does not stop to ask himself how Machiavelli could well consider it otherwise when he had never seen a vicar of Christ who had not so utilized it for the aggrandizement of his see or of his kindred. The statecraft of the period was indescribably base and wicked, but it is instructive to compare the author's indignation at Machiavelli's academic acceptance of it with his tolerance of its practical application by the Holy See. Thus when, in 1484, Innocent VIII., to avert the threats of Ferdinand of Naples, executed bulls conveying to him the territories of Benevento, Terracina, and Ponte Corvo, they were not delivered, but were deposited in escrow with Cardinal Giuliano della Rovere, and Innocent caused a notarial act to be taken reciting that the bulls were only for appearance, to avoid the violence of the king, and that he had no intention to surrender the cities, but would resist by force any attempt to seize them. The only comment which Dr. Pastor makes on this elaborate fraud (p. 181) is that it was a strange method of escaping the difficulty. So, when Julius II. secured his election (p. 521) by entering into an agreement with Cæsar Borgia to appoint him standard-bearer of the Church and to support him in his possessions, and subsequently, when occasion offered, redeemed his pledges by arresting Cæsar and delivering him to the dungeons of Ferdinand of Aragon, there is no word of censure for this breach of faith. In fact, the placid way in which the historian describes the crimes, the voluptuousness, and the corruption of the papal court might be taken as a model of philosophical indifference, akin to that of Machiavelli, were it not in strong contrast to the warmth displayed when he treats of the determination of Louis XI. and his successors to maintain the liberties of the Gallican Church, and the efforts of unfortunate Germany to acquire the same measure of independence.

If space permitted, many other topics would invite and repay criticism, but enough has been said to enable the reader to appreciate the character of the work. It is of first-rate importance; it throws fresh light on many obscure points and debatable questions, and no one can hereafter venture to treat of the period without consulting it. The author has amply demonstrated his abundant learning and untiring industry, but he is deficient in the judicial quality which alone could render him an authority to be accepted without reserve.

ANCIENT EGYPTIAN RELIGION.

Religion of the Ancient Egyptians. By Alfred Wiedemann, Ph.D., Professor in the University of Bonn. London: H. Grevel & Co.; New York: Putnams. 1897. 8vo, pp. xvi, 324.

Judging by the recent past, we are destined soon to have a very respectable Egyptological literature in English, even if a considerable portion of it comes to us by way of translations from the French and German. The 'History' by Prof. Flinders Petrie has progressed as far as the second volume and the eighteenth dynasty. Miss Amelia B. Edwards's books are of the genial sort which rivet the attention even though their scientific value is not of the very highest. Maspero's 'Egyptian Archæology,' 'Life in Ancient Egypt,' and 'Dawn of Civilization' are valuable in every way, being the work of a first-hand and first-class scholar and explorer. Erman's 'Life in Ancient Egypt' is a work somewhat similar to the volumes of Wilkinson ('The Ancient Egyptians'), but surpasses them in consequence of the author's thorough acquaintance with the contents of the texts which he interprets, as well as by reason of the many discoveries made since the days of the pioneer. Brugsch's 'History' is also to be mentioned, though, even in the one-volume abridgment of Miss Brodrick, it contains much that is conjectural and probably untrue. The many memoirs of the Egyptian Exploration Fund, the special volumes of Prof. Petrie, too numerous to be mentioned here, Sayce's repetitious works, and Mariette's 'Outlines' may also be added to the list. Budge's 'Mummy' is among the more recent volumes to appear, and it is one of the most useful and valuable of all in the vast amount of archæological lore which it contains. The translation of the 'Book of the Dead,' by Le Page Renouf, now appearing, and the version of Budge are the best that exist anywhere, greatly superior to the volume of Davis, which contains an unimproved and (as to the notes) somewhat curtailed rendering of the version of Pierret. A previous volume of Wiedemann, on 'The Ancient Egyptian Doctrine of Immortality,' was translated and published a short time since, and now we have the present work as a very valuable contribution to the subject so far as English readers are concerned. It has been known to scholars since 1890 in the original, and has been valued for its conspicuous merit. Other English books, of recent date, but of less striking worth and originality, might be enumerated, but the above suffice to justify the assertion with which we set out, and which takes no account of the older works of Wilkinson, Birch, and others, which retain a certain amount of value even if it be largely historical, marking the steps of the progress that has been made since the opening of the century.

No mention has been made of Renouf's Hibbert lectures on the Egyptian religion, because that work, while valuable in many ways, is vitiated by the preconceptions of the author and by the fact that he holds a brief for a particular theory. In fact, this is the difficulty with all books on the subject, the one now under consideration being, probably, the most free from this rather damaging imputation. Wiedemann agrees with Maspero in many fundamental positions and in general explanation of the

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growth and development of the Egyptian pantheon; Renouf follows the lead of Max Müller; and De Rougé, with his followers, Pierret, Brugsch, and others, see traces of an original monotheism in the religion of the Egyptians. The naturalistic theory of Wiedemann and Maspero agrees more nearly with the views of such scholars as Erman and Eduard Meyer, and seems to be the one likely to prevail in the long run. It may therefore be regarded as a fortunate occurrence that the treatise now made accessible to English readers is the work of Wiedemann, rather than the somewhat fantastic and largely fanciful work of Brugsch.

A national religion is a very large matter, especially when the period of its existence is to be measured by thousands of years instead of by centuries. It is impossible to conceive of a system of belief that should remain unchanged during so long a time, as asserted by Renouf, but there is a sense in which the statement is true. Wiedemann characterizes the Egyptians as "conservative," and so they were if it be meant that they preserved that which was old; but it is not true if it be understood in the sense that they were not open to change, innovation, and addition by accretion. The old and the new existed side by side, neither displacing the other, with never a consciousness of inconsistency or incongruity. Deities were merged into one another, qualities of one were attributed to another, till the pantheon resembled the shifting pictures and combinations of the kaleidoscope. The religion thus had a history, but the nation never had a religion in the sense of a dogmatic system, congruous and articulated in its parts and divisions. The ultimate nucleus, so far as it is possible to trace it or to discover its origin, was in the god of the nomos or city, together with his family or adherents. Each of the forty-odd nomes (the number varied in different periods) of both Upper and Lower Egypt had its tutelary deity, who was usually the leading god of the capital of the nome. The cities had their special god or circle of gods, and these grew powerful or weak according as the prestige of the city waxed or waned. A notable instance of this is seen in the pre-eminence of Ptah, the god of Memphis, in the period when Memphis was the seat of the ruling Pharaoh. The condition was changed at the time of the invasion of the Hyksos, and Ptah was relegated to an inferior position, or to the rank of a local deity. The revolt which finally ended in the overthrow of the Hyksos had its origin at Thebes, whose god was Amon. When the rule of the native princes was restored, it was that of the Theban house, and the god Amon, particularly as Amon-Ra, attained to a fulness of religious recognition which corresponded to the Theban political hegemony. The single attempt at the establishment of a monotheistic faith, the solar worship of Aten (Semitic, Adoni or Adonis), was an importation from the East, or at least was instituted under Oriental or Semitic influence. Its principal conflict was with the Amon worship, and it developed an *odium theologicum* which found vent in hammering out the name of Amon from the monuments even where it occurred as a component part of the name of a royal predecessor of the "heretic" king. The latter himself changed his name from Amenhotep (Amenophis IV.) to Khunaten, in order to remove all reminiscence of the hated god. But the domination of Amon was too powerful, his priesthood too strongly entrenched, their interest in the return to recognition of Amon too intense, to allow the revulsion to be long delayed after the passing of the innovating king.

The monotheistic theory of the religion of the Egyptians finds its support in numerous phrases which, taken alone, suggest nothing more evidently than a monotheistic conception. The word "god" occurs unqualified as subject in many sentences. Such expressions have been used by theorists, after the antiquated proof-text method, to support a hypothesis which cannot stand the test of the context. In spite of surface appearances, these passages in no case refer to deity in general, but invariably to the local divinity whose rule was acknowledged in the city or region in question. The problem of the original religion, however, is a far different one, and in this matter the author observes a cautious discretion which refuses to permit him to make any positive statements or even to hazard a hypothesis. The fact is, that, at the time of the earliest monuments, we are met by a well-developed pantheon, whose origin and genesis are veiled in the obscurity which preceded the dawn of human history. To be sure, the Egyptian myths peopled that period with gods, but they, of course, do not afford us any basis on which to build. It is also rather doubtful whether further excavation will furnish material by which to solve these questions.

To all outward appearance there is no lack of material from which to gather the elements to be woven into an account of the religion of Egypt. But closer examination shows that the texts on temple walls, stelæ, obelisks, and other objects contain a mass of bombastic phrases and repetitions which defy all reason. They are to some extent descriptive of the gods, but their phrases are hard to read and harder to comprehend. They often contain references by implication to myths which were so well known or so closely guarded that they were, apparently, never written out. Consequently the major part, in reality nearly everything, of the Egyptian mythology has perished. There are some survivals, for instance, the Osiris and Isis myth (preserved principally by Plutarch), and the tradition of the destruction of disobedient and rebellious mankind; but the very richness of these stories makes the extent of the loss only the more apparent. All that is left in most cases is an occasional phrase which hints at much behind.

The 'Book of the Dead' is the great storehouse of Egyptian theology, but it never attained to the dignity of a canon in the Egyptian period proper, and at no time did it come to a degree of definiteness of content which prescribed its exact and unalterable limits. It was a growth, and chapter was added to chapter till they approached two hundred in the aggregate, but we have no evidence that any single papyrus ever contained an absolutely complete compilation of them all. This part of the material has not been utilized with the fulness that it deserves, and the main criticism which one is tempted to make on the present work concerns this topic. There are others which one would like to find treated, but which were excluded, probably because, while they relate to religious observances, they fall in the archæological division of the subject rather than within the proper scope of this work. Furthermore, the author's previous work on 'Immortality' covers much of this ground.

The general scope of the book may be briefly stated. The most prominent but not the sole characteristic of the religious beliefs in the valley of the Nile was in the preëminence of the solar element. Many of the deities in human form typified phases of the energy of the solar radiance or the different positions of the sun himself at morning, noon, or night. The treatment of "Sun Worship" therefore takes first place and is followed by an account of what is known with regard to the "Solar Myths," and "The Passage of the Sun through the Underworld." The author then proceeds to describe the various "Chief Deities," their attributes, their involved and promiscuous family and marital relations, and the forms under which they were conceived and adored. A chapter of considerable interest is devoted to "Foreign Gods" and another to the "Worship of Animals." Two more are given to "Osiris and his Circle" and to the "Osirian Doctrine of Immortality," indispensable to an understanding of the funerary practices of the people. Incidentally much light is thrown upon the moral standards of this people by the wonderful "Negative Confession" of the 125th chapter of the 'Book of the Dead.' "Magic and Sorcery" receive also their due consideration, and the final chapter on "Amulets" is one which will enable the visitor to the Egyptian collection of a museum to appreciate and understand the small objects which are ordinarily exhibited there in such profusion.

In its English form this work is practically a second edition of the original, rewritten and enlarged. The translation is anonymous, but it is in gratifying contrast with many of the mechanical, penny-a-line renderings of German historical and theological works which are foisted upon a long-suffering public. In some ways, also, the English is a great improvement upon the German publication. The foot-notes are more numerous and valuable; seventy-odd illustrations, some of them folding-plates, serve to set off the subject admirably, while the extensive index even doubles the value of the work for purposes of consultation and reference—a fact which the present writer appreciates to the full, as he was compelled to make his own index to the original. The book reads well, and it is now no longer true that we have no good book in the language dealing with the religion of Egypt.

The Fall of the Congo Arabs. By Sidney Langford Hinde. T. Whittaker. 1897. Portraits, plans, and map. 8vo, pp. viii, 308.

This work possesses a two-fold interest. It is the narrative, by an eye-witness, of scenes in the Central African phase of the struggle of Mohammedanism with Christianity, which is still in progress in south-eastern Europe and in the eastern and western Sudan, and which is imminent in North Africa and Asia. It also gives important testimony in regard to a charge recently made against the Congo Free State. The Berlin Conference, twelve years ago, gave a commercial company sovereign power over a vast region, not simply to develop its material resources, but to put down slavery and the slave-trade, to civilize and educate the

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natives. For a time nothing was heard but commendation for the zeal and success with which the State was opening the great river and its tributaries to commerce, by building a railway, establishing lines of steamboats, founding trading-stations, and sending out exploring expeditions. But of late this chorus of praise has ceased. In its place, first faint, then distinct, charges have been made that the State, so far from being a civilizing agent, has been instrumental in introducing a barbarism and slavery worse than that which it found upon the Congo. It has been accused of employing cannibals for soldiers and of practising inhuman methods for the collection of the rubber-tribute and the punishment of the wretched people who failed to pay it. The chief witness in support of the former charge is the author of this book, and his proofs can be found in repulsive fulness in his narrative.

On entering the service of the Free State, Capt. Hinde was sent into the interior to join an expedition to explore Katanga, and reached Lusambo in May, 1892, on the day on which Commandant Dhanis returned to it from a successful campaign against one of Tippu Tib's slave-raiding agents. The route of the expedition lay through a devastated region, in which "every height was covered with splendid palm plantations and the remains of villages," to N'Gandu, the residence of this chief. The town, containing from ten to fifteen thousand inhabitants, was surrounded by a palisade, nearly every tree of which was crowned with a human skull. The entrances to the several gateways were "ornamented by a pavement of human skulls, . . . of snowy whiteness, and polished to the smoothness of ivory by the daily passage of hundreds of naked feet. I counted more than two thousand skulls in the pavement of one of the gates alone." A short distance from this place, Capt. Hinde and his companions were stopped by the tidings that the son of Tippu Tib, at the head of a large force, was marching to attack them. The Arabs, jealous of the advance of the Europeans into territory which they had ruled for forty years, and angry at the consequent interference with the slave-trade, had now determined to drive them out of Central Africa. The intended destruction of the Katanga expedition was a part of extensive operations in the course of which several stations were captured, Emin Pasha murdered, and his followers enslaved. These were their only significant successes, for Commandant Dhanis, in a vigorous campaign which lasted more than a year, completely defeated them and destroyed their two great towns, Nyangwe and Kasongo.

Capt. Hinde sketches briefly the history of the war, which covered a wide extent of country, dwelling naturally more at length upon the incidents of which he was an eye-witness. Especially interesting are his descriptions of the centres of Arab civilization, towns of from thirty to sixty thousand inhabitants, but now entirely deserted. The forest had been cut down for miles around them, and in the clearings were maize and rice fields, sugar plantations, and fruit gardens. In the houses at Kasongo, "silver and glass goblets and decanters were in profusion," while "even the common soldiers slept on silk and satin mattresses, in carved beds with silk mosquito curtains." Here also were found the diary and two decorations of Emin Pasha, who, "our Arab prisoners told us, . . . was the most inoffensive man that was ever seen in Africa. They had, according to their own accounts, no other reason for murdering him except that a general massacre of white men had been decided on, and, coming into a district in which all the white men had already been killed, he shared their fate." After the taking of the last Arab stronghold, Capt. Hinde explored the Congo as far as the mouth of the Lukuga, a stream connecting the river with Lake Tanganyika. An attempt to reach the lake failed through his illness, and he was obliged to return to England.

The war with the Arabs was of no slight importance, considering the numbers engaged and the issues at stake. At the beginning, Commandant Dhanis had under his command "about 25,000 natives, 400 regulars, and six white officers." The number of their opponents is of course purely conjectural, but it was immensely greater, as their losses are "estimated at seventy thousand men." The result was the overthrow of what bid fair to be another great Mohammedan empire. "A great element in our success," Capt. Hinde says with a frankness almost brutal, was "the fact that both sides were cannibals, or rather that both sides had cannibals in their train." The Mohammedans, dreading the mutilation of their bodies, and their consequent exclusion from the highest heaven, would on a reverse "fly from the field with all possible speed—not so much in order to save their lives as through fear lest their carcasses, in the event of their falling, should be torn to pieces." This seems to have been invariably the fate of the wounded and killed. After a fight at Nyangwe, when "over one thousand men fell," the burial force found only a few hundred heads, "all the bodies having been carried off for food." The practice is not confined to one region or race, but is prevalent throughout the whole Congo Basin. There were instances of it even among the men employed on the steamboats at Stanley Pool. According to Capt. Hinde, it is on the increase. He mentions one tribe, the Balubas, "a fine, healthy, industrious race," "agriculturists, iron-workers, and cloth-makers," who until quite lately "were not cannibals, and even now the *men* only eat their enemies who fall in battle." This growing appetite for human flesh he attributes to the greater intercourse among the natives since the coming of the Europeans has made travelling easier and safer. "Formerly the people who wandered from their own neighborhood among the surrounding tribes were killed and eaten, and so did not return among their own people to enlighten them by showing that human flesh was useful as an article of food." If these statements are true (and they are supported by numerous facts taken from the author's personal experience), the increase of cannibalism is perhaps only a temporary phase of the inevitable deteriorating effect of the contact of the whites with the negroes. Apparently it would seem to be impossible for the Free State to administer its territory without occasionally employing cannibals. The crime, when detected in one of its servants, it should be said, is punished with death.

The interest of the book is well sustained throughout. The author's descriptive power is shown, not only in the incidents related, but in his admirable account of the ten-inch path which traverses Central Africa in every direction, and of the forest with its absence of life and color, except sombre greens and browns. He is not a scientific observer, however, and he adds little to our knowledge of the people among whom he lived for three years. Nor is he sufficiently careful in some of his statements. An account of the Batwa, a pygmy race inhabiting the forest bordering on the Lomami River, is occupied mainly with their skill in the "shooting of three, or even four, arrows so rapidly that the last is discharged before the first reaches its mark," and with the deadliness of their poison. "An elephant in one of our stations, which was scratched on the haunch by a poisoned spear, fell down dead before going a hundred yards." Of their appearance, their manner of life, their habitations, their language Capt. Hinde says nothing, and yet if "their average height is under four feet," as he states, they are the most remarkable race in the world in this respect and well deserve the closest observation. If we are not mistaken, the smallest people known to science are the Akkas, who range in height from 4.3 to 4.7 feet. A striking portrait of Baron Dhanis, as well as one of the author, together with some diagrams and a map of the southeastern Congo Basin showing recent explorations, add to the attractiveness and value of the volume.

Julian M. Sturtevant: An Autobiography. Edited by J. M. Sturtevant, Jr. Fleming H. Revell Co. 1897.

The personal interest attaching to this autobiography is not slight, for we are put in touch with a man of sterling character and many winning traits, whose experience was one of much more than ordinary hardship and variety. What is incidental, however, is the most valuable and attractive element—the rough and hard beginnings of a new civilization in the West from sixty to seventy years ago, and especially the humors and the sinuosities of ecclesiastical politics as they were exhibited on a narrow stage, which, nevertheless, was typical of a pretty general condition. Mr. Sturtevant writes the story of his life with great frankness and simplicity, and with that evident enjoyment which goes far to insure the reader's sympathy. Now and then his grammar halts as we should not expect a college president's to do if we were applying the severest modern standards to the pioneers of college education on the verge of civilized society.

Dr. Sturtevant was Connecticut born, in Warren, Litchfield County, in 1805. All his early associations were those of New England Puritanism, and he was always true to them, his portrait confirming the text in this particular. At the same time, he was a growing man, and he sincerely deprecates the narrowness and bitterness of sectarian zeal, and the signing of creeds which can be neither understood nor intelligently assented to by young or old. He writes intelligently of the industrial conditions which encouraged emigration from New England to the West, the more so because political economy was for a long time one of his courses of instruction in Illinois College. His parents joined the emigrants in 1816. The account of the journey to Ohio, mostly on foot, is so fascinating as to make us wish we had been there, for all the rigors it entailed. The first stop, in Richfield, proved unsatisfactory. There was neither church nor school, and the homesick family "wept when they

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remembered Zion." Very pathetic were the yearnings for the usual "means of grace." These yearnings took the Sturtevant family to Tallmadge, where education and religion had some germinal activity. There is a capital story of how the parents going for the belated cows were lost in the great forest in a terrific storm.

We soon find ourselves touching on the lives of men well known to history and fame. Elizur Wright was the principal of the local academy, and his son, of the same name, the better known abolitionist, translator of Lafontaine, and Massachusetts Commisioner of Insurance, was caught up into the vortex of a religious revival. Afterward he departed widely from the traditional faith, but Dr. Sturtevant has only kindly recollections of his early friend. Hudson was near by, and there lived Owen Brown, the father of "Old John." Owen was one of the worst of stammerers, and young Sturtevant in visiting him anticipated the morning prayers with natural anxiety. Strange to relate, in his Scripture reading Brown stammered little, and in his prayer not at all. When the boy was about leaving for Yale College, his father's voice choked with emotion and he could not go on with his own Bible reading. Then, fortunately, Owen Brown appeared, took the Bible, and brought the painful business to a solemn and impressive end.

From Yale we follow the autobiographer to New Canaan, where he taught school and fell in love with the lady whom he married, when, after a course of theological study, he set out in 1829 to found Illinois College, the plan for which had originated in a company of Yale theological students. The story of the journey and the small and rude beginnings of the enterprise is full of interest, one of many such stories concerning the initial stages of our schools and colleges. But at Jacksonville there were peculiar difficulties. Dr. Edward Beecher was made President of the college in 1830, and assumed the office in 1832. He and Mr. Sturtevant were Congregationalists in a Presbyterian community, and the college was under Presbyterian control. The arrangement was part of that doubtful development of ecclesiastical politics, the Plan of Union between the Congregationalists and Presbyterians, whereby the Congregationalists were to have New England to themselves and the Presbyterians all the rest of the country. Here was sufficient opportunity for jealousy and bickering, but it was indefinitely increased when the differences between Old and New School Presbyterians reached their climax in the formation of two separate bodies. Dr. Beecher and Mr. Sturtevant fell under suspicion and were tried for heresy, but acquitted by the local presbytery. Mr. Sturtevant's position was particularly trying, because the more he saw of the Presbyterians and their bickerings, the more stanch became his Congregationalist convictions of church polity. The situation was aggravated by the establishment of a Congregational church in Jacksonville with which he could not but sympathize, though he deprecated the movement. He writes with much feeling of the injury done to educational enterprises by sectarian jealousy.

The glimpses he affords us of the Beechers who flocked to Jacksonville are entertaining. He blames Catherine severely because her argumentative intensity made him forget the deference due to her sex. Dr. Beecher resigned in 1844, and Mr. Sturtevant succeeded him. There were times during the next dozen years when the fortunes of the college were extremely critical, but at length his persistent efforts gave it financial security, and, for its ecclesiastical basis, a compromise between Congregationalists and New School Presbyterians, which, however ludicrous in its appearance, has promise of success. The President is to be elected first from one sect and then from the other. It can easily be imagined how either party to this arrangement will look out for a young man of vigorous constitution as often as its turn comes round.

Dr. Sturtevant did not live to finish his autobiography, and the appendix by his son is mainly personal. We learn that he resigned his office in 1876, and that in 1883 he delivered an historical discourse on the fiftieth anniversary of the founding of the college. Some details from that discourse, comparing the grown-up college with its infancy, would have been welcome, but unfortunately they are withheld.

Chapters xv. and xx. are two of the most interesting in the book, though they are episodical. In the former, "The Negro," Dr. Sturtevant is at some pains to indicate his anti-slavery position. He was made an abolitionist by Garrison, but could not go with him the length of his anti-Union and non-voting declarations, and, although a clergyman, he misquotes the famous "covenant with death, etc." But apparently the Liberty party did not satisfy him, seeing that he did not vote for President at all until 1848 (not 1849 as written), when he voted for Van Buren. There is warm praise for Elizur Wright, Charles B. Storrs, and Beriah Green. After Lovejoy's first press was thrown into the river at Alton, Mr. Sturtevant was one of a company discussing the advisability of his getting another and going on with his work. He advised against it, and submits that he was more consistent than those who retreated from their position after Lovejoy's death. If they were right in urging resistance before that event, he thinks they would have been doubly right after the catastrophe. President Beecher was at Alton just before the riot, and received the new press at night with Lovejoy, and stood guard over it with him until morning, and then returned to his college duties, escaping in this way a dangerous situation and, perhaps, a martyr's crown. Mr. Sturtevant's anti-slavery enthusiasm is, however, reserved for the rise and growth of the Republican party. He dwells at length on Lincoln, whom he knew very well, but adds little to our knowledge of his history. Especially futile is his endeavor to establish Lincoln's Christian character. But it has this advantage over some hundreds of others: it concedes that if the churches had been more religious and less theological, Mr. Lincoln would probably have thought better of them, and have joined one or another. In fact the simplicity of religion, as compared with the complexity of the creeds, appears to have been the one lesson which Dr. Sturtevant learned as he did no other. It is the lesson that he teaches most impressively.

Medical Climatology. By S. Edwin Solly, M.D. Philadelphia: Lea Brothers. 1897.

Two Health-Seekers in Southern California. By William A. Edwards, M.D., and Beatrice Harraden. Philadelphia: Lippincott. 1897.

Dr. Solly's 'Medical Climatology' is a declaration of principles followed by a fair directory of the health resorts of the world. Very properly the author makes much of the action of sunlight, laying stress upon the germicidal influence of direct insolation, and upon its general invigorating power. The best example on a great scale of the vivifying influence of light, not noted herein, is the extraordinary stimulus its annual return gives to arctic animal life. There the reappearing sun excites emotional as well as invigorates physical existence, and the coming of the nightless day is marked by storms of passion and by other outbursts of restlessness and energy. Taking the whole globe under review, much of the detail in this work is necessarily meagre, but in all important respects the accounts seem trustworthy. The Rocky Mountain region is brought into particular prominence by its possession of the special quantities of abundant sunlight, low relative humidity, and freedom from atmospheric impurities, which are the essentials of a consumptive's climate; for, after all, the consumptives outnumber all others who change their skies in the hope of bringing strength to their bodies and rest to their minds. A comparison of Davos-Platz, which may be taken as the best of such European resorts, shows that on the first of January it has not quite four hours of possible sunshine against a little more than nine at Denver. The average relative humidity for the autumn and winter is 81 at Davos, against 50.5 at Denver; in January it was 86 abroad to 39 at home. The precipitation for the six colder months is 11.24 inches on 53 days at Davos, against 6.79 inches on 28 days at Denver. There may be other points in Colorado that make a better showing than Denver, but at their best the Alps are not as health-restoring as the Rockies. The book is well made, and has nearly a dozen maps, climatic rather than topographical. There are a few blemishes, as Saginaw for Saguenay (p. 189); Forts Yuma and Defiance, abandoned interior military posts, noted as having a present existence; bald, gazetteer-like entries of no real value except as names; no reference to the Catskills or the high Sierras; and the very serious defect of commonly failing to cite the page of authorities used.

In the second book on the same subject specialized, Miss Harraden reminds one that, notwithstanding the wonderful attractions of air and sky and distant scenery, country life for an invalid or for a woman means horses and servants or collapse. Dr. Edwards's claim is for the best yearly climate in the world, not absolutely the best in every particular all the time. His warning is that every health-seeker should not take some one else's climate, but by patient and intelligent exploration find his own. To seek health in California, or anywhere, except as resting in the convalescence from acute illness, means long-continued if not perpetual residence, with the reasonable precautions of food, moderate exercise, and freedom from special care. When these conditions are attained, life that is worth nothing in some climates is renewed and maintained there. But where almost every square league has individual characteristics, it is absurd for an invalid to settle thoughtlessly anywhere south of Point Conception, assured that the whole region is a terrestrial paradise.

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Southern California is a paradise, but not a paradise for fools; and neither the glories of the sky nor the splendors of the ocean can replace judgment. With the exercise of judgment and the possession of some capital, a tranquil, happy, and prolonged life may be expected in suitable cases. As mere description, regardless of any utilitarian question, the little volume charmingly sets forth the advantages and honestly states the disadvantages of that unique country. As a guide-book for the chronic invalid, it makes the way plain. The last two chapters, on those who are and those who are not benefited by the climate, are eminently serviceable.

The Literary Movement in France during the Nineteenth Century. By Georges Pellissier. Authorized English Version, by Anne Garrison Brinton. With general introduction. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

M. Pellissier's volume, soon after its appearance in 1889, called forth from the pen of M. Brunetière another treatise on the same subject, covering a large part of his volume, 'Nouvelles Questions de Critique.' Emphasizing the influence of writers whom the younger critic had underrated (Voltaire, Buffon), abating the overestimated importance of others (Diderot, Chénier), supplying additional causes for the rise or decline of the classic, romantic, realistic, and naturalistic schools, criticising points of detail, rarely advancing views radically different from M. Pellissier's (as in the case of 'Madame Bovary')—M. Brunetière's essay forms an important supplement to the larger work of M. Pellissier, while at the same time showing its real value.

To welcome in its first English version M. Pellissier's philosophical study of the successive phases of French literature in the present century, appearing, as it does, in a garb most attractive by its combined elegance and good taste, would be as pleasant a task as could fall to the reviewer's lot. In these times of university extension movements, Chautauqua reading circles, and ladies' literary clubs, there is need of English editions of just such serious books as the present one. It is, therefore, to our sincere regret that we feel compelled to characterize the translator's performance as quite inadequate. A few specimens will suffice to bear us out in this summary judgment.

The very first sentences of the Introduction (which is lacking in lucidity), purporting to be translated from Brunetière, read: "M. G. Pellissier's *Mouvement Littéraire au XIXe siècle* is no less the picture than the history of contemporary French literature. In addition, it is also the philosophy, or rather describes the evolution of the literary movement of our century." In truth, Brunetière says, in substance: "M. P. has given us in his book neither a picture nor the history of the literary movement in the nineteenth century, . . . but rather its philosophy, or, still better, its evolution" ('Nouvelles Questions de Critique,' p. 153). Pellissier writes (p. 7, edition of 1889): "Le XVIIe siècle ne saisit par mieux Homère que Pindare. Ce qu'on [that is, the writers of the 17th century] lui reproche, c'est justement ce que nous goûtons le plus dans son épopée." The second clause, in the English version, reads (p. 9): "What *we miss in them* is exactly what we like best . . . ," and so the translator continues through several sentences, attributing to us moderns the literary judgment and taste of the French 17th century critics. On page 13, "On passe son amour conjugal à Andromaque parcequ'Hector n'est plus" is rendered: "Conjugal affection is passed over to A.," where it should be "forgiven," "condoned." Page 16, "When poets rhyme about old age, about the Psalms, etc.," should be: "If many poets, as old age approaches [*sur leur vieillesse*], put in rhyme the Psalms," etc.

Among unwarranted omissions of words and phrases we notice: Page 10, line 3 from bottom, after "His distinctive characteristics are perfect manners," the English for "une mesure exquise" is left out; p. 12, l. 22, "la risée des honnêtes gens" is translated simply by "ridicule"; p. 13, l. 11, after "protects himself" the phrase "par une jalouse étiquette" is omitted in the translation. At other times, words are added by the translator which slightly, or even seriously, affect the meaning; thus, p. 15, in "for she has no secrets for them," the conjunction is wanting in the original; p. 17, l. 1, there is no reason why "et" should be translated by "moreover," beginning a new sentence. On p. 12, l. 8, "whenever" should be "even when" (*lors même que*); p. 15, l. 21, "in effect" is given for "en effet"; p. 16, l. 19, "So also is he" does not render "Aussi resta-t-il"; nor (in the last line) is "also that Athalie" the equivalent of "et, quant à Athalie." We further call attention to such slips as "the careful *arrangement* of contiguous propositions *announce* and *lead* up to" (p. 17), and to constructions like this: "This reason, upon which Racine congratulates Corneille for having been the first to place on the stage, upon which Voltaire will, in turn, commend Bourdaloue for having been the first to preach from the pulpit, Perrault carries into fairy tales, and is also exacted by Boileau from the *chanson*" (p. 18).

These quotations do not exhaust the defects to be found in the first chapter of twenty-one pages. A cursory examination of the remaining portions of the volume does not disclose any essentially superior skill or care in translation. It remains to be said, however, that, in spite of its many errors, the book will furnish to English readers the best means available for gaining an insight into the nature and relations of the principal currents of modern French literature. There are passages in which the *traduttore* will prove to be a *traditore*, but in the majority of cases the mistakes are not serious enough to falsify the meaning of the original. And as to the style, it is generally fluent, and felicitous renderings are not rare.

Student's Dictionary of Anglo-Saxon. By Henry Sweet. Macmillan.

The condition of Anglo-Saxon lexicography is "a curse, an hissing, and a reproach." Bosworth is so bad that a distinguished German philologist has been known to congratulate himself, in print, on not possessing it. Ettmüller is both tormenting and obsolete. Bosworth-Toller is neither fish nor flesh, and, though indispensable, has called forth more just wrath from the long-suffering student than any other book of its inches. Besides, Bosworth-Toller seems to be hopelessly stuck in the letter S. Clark-Hall is useful, but dreadfully inaccurate. Grein alone can be consulted with comfort and satisfaction, and the advance of knowledge has made a thorough revision of even Grein devoutly to be hoped for. At this juncture Dr. Henry Sweet offers us a 'Student's Dictionary of Anglo-Saxon,' which is very welcome, like everything which Dr. Sweet writes, but which, after all, excites feelings rather of regret than of gratulation. What the world wants of Dr. Sweet is not a two-hundred-page dictionary, but a thesaurus. It was somebody's plain duty years ago to set Dr. Sweet at a great Anglo-Saxon dictionary. Instead, Prof. Toller was bidden to complete Bosworth, and then Dr. Sweet was asked to prepare an abridgment! However, it is too late to find fault with the Delegates of the Clarendon Press, if, indeed, they are to blame. We are ready to make the best of that queer conglomerate, Bosworth-Toller—if only the Press will give us the long-deferred last part—and to extend to Dr. Sweet's little book, which will be enormously useful, the greeting it deserves.

Like all of Dr. Sweet's books, however, this Student's Dictionary is rather hard to use. He has devised a most ingenious system of condensation, and, as a result, he has packed more into this smallish volume than most lexicographers would have got into a book of double its size. But it takes some time to learn his conventions, and one would willingly pay half a dollar more and have less trouble. Of the scholarship of the book it is unnecessary to speak: Dr. Sweet's name is surety enough. Yet we could wish more attention had been paid to the poetical texts, and in particular to the recent critical studies to which many of them have been subjected. Such attention would have modified a considerable number of the articles.

The dictionary, though sold at a low price, is well printed and far from unsightly; but the paper, we regret to observe, will not take ink.

On Veldt and Farm. By Frances Macnab. Edward Arnold. 1897.

The first impression one gets of this work is unfavorable. We see that the writer has merely travelled about South Africa, picking up miscellaneous information which, with little attempt to weigh it, she imparts to the public. Whereas her views on many questions are the undigested partisan ones of the people with whom she came most in contact, she abounds in lofty counsel and thin generalization. In politics, of course, she echoes the usual complaints of colonists against the home Government, without showing any grasp of the difficulties of the subject; she continually attacks the Boers (if she knew Dutch she might have heard a little more of their side of the case), she warmly admires Cecil Rhodes, and she indulges in such stuff as "the Pharaoh of Pretoria with the usual near-sightedness of a mere tyrant," and "It is impossible to believe that Paul Krüger is anxious, as he pretends to be, to promote the true interests of South Africa." In short, it is the complacent shallowness of the ordinary rambling journalist, unconvincing to any one who does not agree with her already. The style, too, is commonplace and frequently trivial.

However, as we get on, we admit that the volume contains a good deal of scrappy information about a country which is exciting

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much interest at the present day. We may not trust the author, but she does seem to mean well, striving to describe the various resources of South Africa and what may be hoped from them, with a measure of success, and in a tone that improves as she gets away from politics. She is, in the main, enthusiastic about the country, but the reader cannot help being struck with its drawbacks, even over and above those common to all new regions.

"South Africa is the land of variety and of sudden, sharp contrasts. This is exemplified, not merely in the sphere of humanity by the black and white races, or by the phlegmatic, mediæval Boer and the *fin-de-siècle* civil engineer, but the climate possesses the same peculiarity. If one day is unearthly in loveliness and serenity, the next is certain to be visited with that unparalleled curse—a dust-storm. Then, when it rains it is a deluge, and the land is swept by rivers which yesterday did not exist. When the plague of floods subsides, a wind follows, and the appalling plague of thirst. It is a land where grasses are so rich that cattle grow fat in the open veldt. But the scourge of mysterious diseases afflicts them, and they drag paralyzed limbs and emaciated bodies through acres of rich pasture."

The farmer finds it hard to prosper permanently under such circumstances. Then, too, in spite of irrigation, most of the land does not seem well suited to wheat, which "is not a successful crop in Africa generally, and it is open to doubt whether, under the most improved methods, it may be possible to grow sufficient for the colony's consumption." Wine-growing has not been very prosperous of recent years, any more than ostrich farming; still, "There are few features in South Africa which it is more agreeable to dwell upon than Drakenstein hock, and certainly none which has about it greater appearance of an immense success in the immediate future." Unluckily, several countries in these days have golden dreams of making and exporting wines, for which the demand is by no means unlimited. The author speaks of mining only incidentally, being evidently much more interested in agriculture. We may leave it to those whom it concerns to appraise the value of the advice she offers to all sorts of intending settlers.

In conclusion, the publisher deserves thanks for giving us a volume so easy to hold as the present one. We hope that the example will be generally followed, for good print and paper need not mean, as they so often do, a disagreeable weight in the hand.

An Illustrated Flora of the Northern United States, Canada, and the British Possessions, from Newfoundland to the Parallel of the Southern Boundary of Virginia, and from the Atlantic Ocean westward to the 102d Meridian. By Nathaniel Lord Britton, Ph.D., Emeritus Professor of Botany in Columbia University, and Director in Chief of the New York Botanical Garden, and Hon. Addison Brown, President of the Torrey Botanical Club. The descriptive text chiefly prepared by Professor Britton, with the assistance of specialists in several groups; the figures also drawn under his supervision. In three volumes. Vol. II. Portulacaceæ to Menyanthaceæ. Portulaca to Buckbean. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1897.

This, the second, volume of a treatise already noticed in our pages, fully keeps the promise of the first. The typographical execution is, in all respects, as good, and the illustrations are as profuse. In some instances, the engravings strike us as better than their predecessors; the contrasting characters having been selected with greater care, and depicted with greater emphasis. Concerning the nomenclature and the subdividing of orders, genera, and species, largely matters of judgment, we are not wholly in accord with the treatise, and we believe that many of the decisions in the work will not stand the test of time; but these questions are too technical to interest our readers. Therefore, we shall content ourselves with a reiterated general protest against what appears to us to be precipitate and unwise action, which will by and by require a retracing of the steps. We cannot avoid the conviction that a more conservative course, both in regard to names and to ultimate divisions under genera, would have increased the permanent value of the work.

The arrangement of orders is, as we have noticed before, that of the lamented Eichler, adopted and largely modified by his successor Engler and associates. At least three arrangements, based essentially on Eichler's suggestions, are now in print. The one here chosen is on some accounts the best for present use, and we are glad it has been employed. That great changes in classification are impending, there can be little doubt; each system is an attempt to accomplish an impossible task, namely, to represent in terms of one dimension innumerable relations in space and time. Hanstein, one of the most gifted botanical philosophers, endeavored to construct in a new fashion the family tree of plants, and, in so doing, revealed to his contemporaries relations which had hardly before been suspected. The privately printed sketch which he placed in the hands of his pupils has been valued as a revelation, and has had much to do with the present attitude of systematic botany in Germany. The adoption of one of the stimulating systems which have grown out of Hanstein's and of Eichler's study, will certainly be of service here, and we approve this heartily. The juxtapositions of orders seem sometimes unnatural, but they are, for the most part, founded on dominant relations which ought to come out clearly.

There are two other matters which, though on a different plane, deserve hearty commendation, namely, the care which has been given to accentuation and to trivial names. There is likely to be criticism enough, and to spare, in relation to the general questions of specific names and treatment; but the fact should be kept clearly in mind that the authors have given botanists a treatise of exceptionally attractive appearance at a marvellously low price. Even without accepting the questionable specific names and without adopting the splintering policy in the management of genera, the work can be of convenience to every active amateur and professional botanist.

A Glossary of Indian Terms. By G. Temple. London: Luzac & Co. 1897. Royal 8vo, pp. 332.

This work may prove helpful in several ways, not merely to the specialist in the field of Eastern research, but also to general readers of literature, the works of Rudyard Kipling, and of such authors as lay their scenes in India. Students of Oriental travel may find something serviceable in its pages; and those who are engaged in trade with the East Indies might occasionally turn to the volume with profit if it were on the office shelf. To a young Englishman going into the civil service, one might conceive of such a book's becoming indispensable. In short, the glossary comprises terms relating to "religion, customs, government, land, and other terms and words in common use."

A glance at the definitions under such entries as "rupīya" (rupee, coin), "Ramazān" (the Mohammedan Lenten season), "satī" (suttee, widow-burning), is instructive. One also finds that "Fars, Fārsi" (Persia, Persian), "Gabr" (fire-worshipper), "Dozakh" (hell) are included; but "Dakhma" (Tower of Silence) seems to be missing among Perso-Indian terms that have grown familiar from the Parsis of Bombay. Some cross-references might have been added with advantage; the reader, for example, must look for "Juggernāth" (Jagannāth) under Rath-jātra (festival of the procession of the car). The specialist may notice several points for slight correction, and then he will join with others in thanking author and publishers for producing a book which is of use.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

About, Edmond. L'Oncle et le Neveu. W. R. Jenkins. 25c.
Archibald, Douglas. The Story of the Earth's Atmosphere. Appletons.
Bailey, L. H. The Principles of Fruit-Growing. Macmillan. $1.25.
Balzac, H. de. A Distinguished Provincial at Paris. London: Dent; New York: Macmilan. $1.50.
Banta, T. M. Year Book of the Holland Society of New York. 1897. Knickerbocker Press.
Belloc, Bessie R. A Passing World. London: Ward & Downey.
Bertheroy, Jean. Les Trois Filles de Pieter Waldorp. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Brisson, Adolphe. Portraits Intimes. 3me Série. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Browne, Irving. In the Track of the Bookworm. East Aurora, N. Y.: Roycroft Printing Shop.
Bruce, M. W. Alaska: History and Resources. Seattle: Lowman & Hanford. 75c.
Clever Tales. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.25.
Colton, Julia M. Annals of Switzerland. London: Hodder & Stoughton; New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.25.
Crawford, J. J. The Negotiable Instruments Law. Baker, Voorhis & Co. $1.75.
Cowell, Prof. E. B. The Jataka; or, Stories of the Buddha's Former Births. Vol III. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Duniway, C. A. Graduate Courses. 1897-98. Macmillan. 25c.
Farina, Salvatore. Fra le Corde di un Contrabasso. W. R. Jenkins. 35c.
Gardner, J. S. Armour in England. [Portfolio Monographs.] Macmillan.
Garland, Hamlin. A Spoil of Office. Wayside Courtships. Jason Edwards. A Member of the Third House. Uniform ed. Appletons. Each $1.25.
Gotlic, Charles le. Sur la Côte. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Griffin, A. P. C. A Catalogue of the Washington Collection in the Boston Athenæum. Boston: The Boston Athenæum.
Gudeman, Prof. Alfred. Outlines of the History of Classical Philology. 3d ed., revised and enlarged. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Harrington, C. L. Physics for Grammar Schools. American Book Co. 50c.
Harrison, Mrs. Burton. A Son of the Old Dominion. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.50.
Hay, John. Speech at the Unveiling of the Bust of Sir Walter Scott. John Lane. 35c.
Henderson, Prof. C. R. The Social Spirit of America. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent.
Hill, G. F. Sources for Greek History between the Persian and Peloponnesian Wars. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Hodge, Rev. J. A. The Ruling Elder at Work. Randolph. 75c.
Johnston, R. M. Old Times in Middle Georgia. Macmillan. $1.50.
Mathews, F. S. Familiar Features of the Roadside. D. Appleton & Co. $1.75.
McFarland, James. Miscellaneous Poems. New York: W. C. Parker.
Mérimée, Prosper. Letters to an Unknown. Brentanos. $1.25.
Montefiore, Arthur. Leaders into Unknown Lands: Being Chapters of Recent Travel. Whittaker. $1.25.
Murray, J. A. H. A New English Dictionary. Doom—Dziggetai (Vol. III.). Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Pellison, Maurice. Roman Life in Pliny's Time. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent.
Powers, Laura B. The Missions of California. San Francisco: William Doxey.
Reid, G. A. The Present Evolution of Man. London: Chapman & Hall.
Richard, Marie E. The Country Charge. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society. 75c.
Richard, Marie E. Philip Jacob Spener and His Work. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society. 40c.

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Stubbs, William. Registrum Sacrum Anglicanum. 2d ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Sturgis, Julian. The Folly of Pen Harrington. Appletons. $1.
Thatcher, O. J. A Short History of Mediæval Europe. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent.
"The Book Buyer." Vol. XIV. Feb.-July, 1897. Scribners.
The Encyclopædia of Sport. Parts II., III., and IV. Putnams. Each $1.
The Quest of the Gilt-Edged Girl. [Bodley Booklets.] John Lane. 35c.
Thwaites, R. G. The Jesuit Relations. Vol. VII., Quebec, Hurons, Cape Breton: 1634-1635. Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co.
Two Women Who Posed. J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co. 25c.
Walker, Hugh. The Merry Devil of Edmonton. [Temple Dramatists.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. 45c.
Warren, Kate M. Spenser's Faerie Queene. Book I. London: Constable; New York: Macmillan. 50c.
Watts-Dunton, Theodore. Jubilee Greeting at Spithead to the Men of Greater Britain. John Lane. 50c.
Weare, G. E. Cabot's Discovery of North America. London: John McQueen; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.
Weichart, C. Pompeii vor der Zerstoerung. Leipzig: K. F. Koehler; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Wright, Mabel O., and Coues, Elliott. Citizen Bird: Scenes from Bird-life in Plain English for Beginners. Macmillan. $1.50.
Wrong, Prof. G. M. Louisbourg in 1745. The Anonymous Lettre d'un Habitant de Louisbourg. Toronto: William Briggs.
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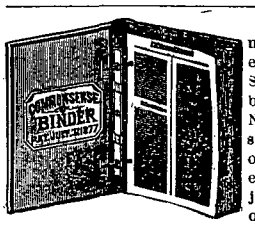

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